DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 207 684 PS 012 396

TITLE Curriculum for Early Childhood Education: A Report of a Workshop Held at the Kenya Institute of Education (July 16 to August 3, 1979). Volume 1.

INSTITUTION German Foundation for International Development, Bonn (West Germany).

PUB DATE Jul 80

NOTE 217p.; Not available in hard copy due to marginal legibility of original document. For related document, see PS 012 397.

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS *Child Development; Computation; *Curriculum Development; Developing Nations; Developmental Tasks; *Early Childhood Education; Elementary School Teachers; Foreign Countries; Language Skills; *Preschool Education; Preschool Teachers; Science Instruction; Socialization; Special Education; *Teacher Education; Teacher Workshops

IDENTIFIERS *Africa

ABSTRACT

A workshop on "Curriculum for Early Childhood Education," held in the summer of 1979 at the Kenya Institute of Education, aimed to familiarize participants with the problems facing early childhood education in Africa. Specific workshop objectives were (1) to familiarize participants with the psychological, social, political, and economic factors influencing the young African child; (2) to enable participants to apply educational implications inferred from the first objective; and (3) to inculcate necessary skills for designing curriculum for early childhood education in Africa. This document, one of two volumes of the workshop proceedings, includes foundation papers, country profiles, working group reports, opening session addresses, and an evaluation of the workshop. Topics of foundation papers include specific African aspects of developmental tasks facing young children, sociocultural environments, traditional forms of early childhood education, teacher training, political and economic realities, and evaluation. Representatives from various countries reported on teacher training, early childhood education, and trends in curriculum development within their respective countries. Working group reports focused on developing language skills, developing scientific, computational, and manipulative skills, and catering for children with special needs. (Author/DB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

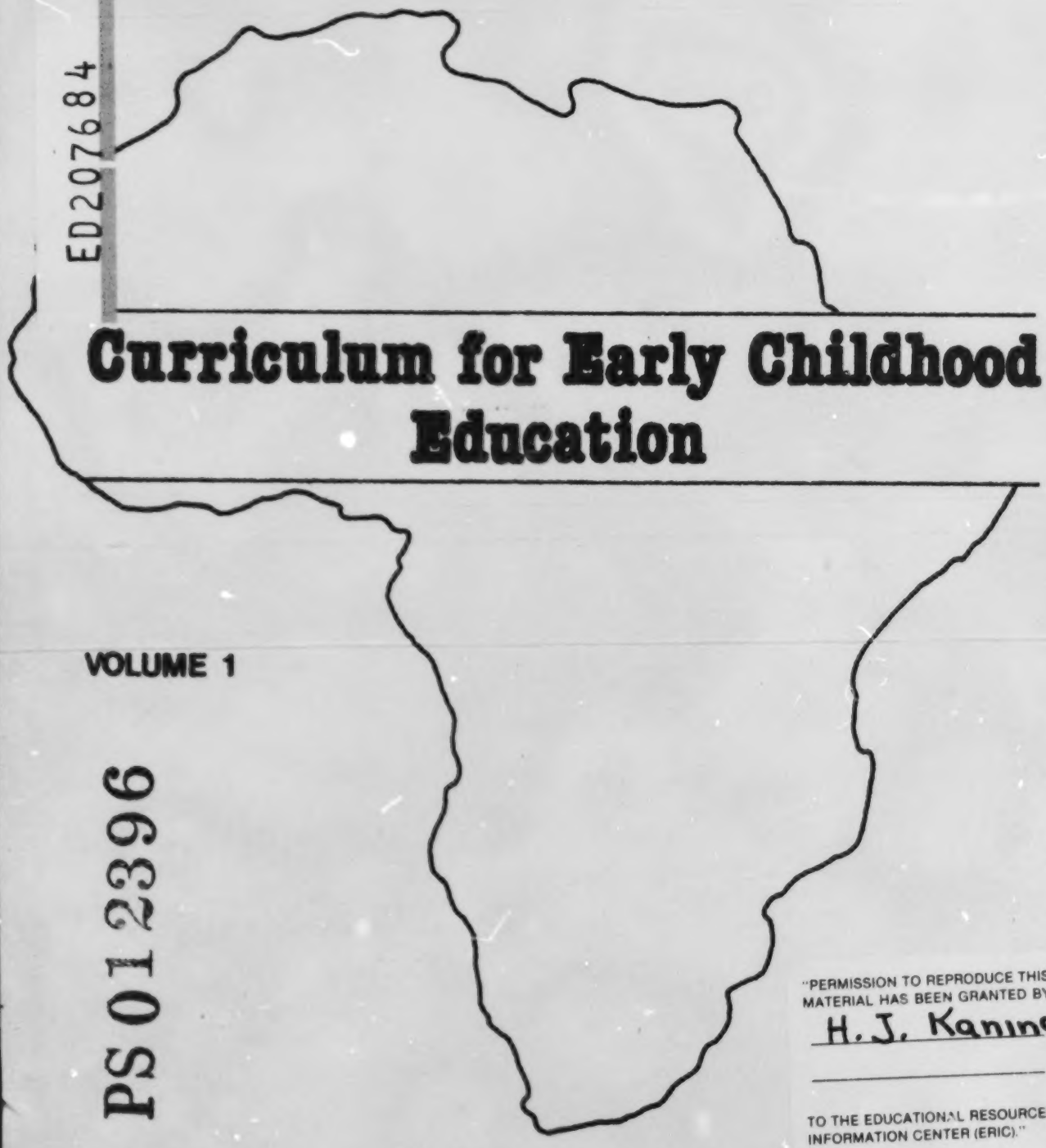
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

Level II

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION
(A.C.O)

ED207684



Curriculum for Early Childhood Education

VOLUME 1

PS012396

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
H. J. Kanina
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

A report of a workshop held at the Kenya Institute of Education from 16th. July to 3rd. August 1979

2

PREFACE

A series of annual workshops have been jointly organised by the African Curriculum Organisation (ACO) and the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) since 1976. The following is a report of the third in the series. The theme of the third annual workshop was "Curriculum for Early Childhood Education" and was hosted by the Kenya Institute of Education, Nairobi, from 16th July to 3rd August, 1979. It is hoped that this workshop will stimulate further rethinking into the needs and problems facing early childhood education on the continent.

I would like to express my gratitude to the African Curriculum Organisation and the German Foundation for International Development without whom this workshop would not have been convened. Thanks also to the consultants and the participants for working so tirelessly to make the workshop such a success; and everyone else who offered their dedicated service during the planning and running of the workshop. Finally I would like to thank Margaret Kabiru, Ahmed Ndalu and Hosea Ng'ang'a for compiling this report.

H.J. Kanina
DIRECTOR
KENYA INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

The workshop on "Curriculum for Early Childhood Education" which was held at the Kenya Institute of Education from 16th July to 3rd August, 1979, is one of the achievements of the African Curriculum Organisation (ACO). This workshop leads to the realisation of one of the major undertakings of ACO, that is, the training of manpower in the area of curriculum development. To this end, the organisation, with the assistance of the German Foundation for International Development (DSE), has organised two such workshops since its inauguration in September, 1976.

The purpose of the workshop was to sensitize participants with the problems facing early childhood education in Africa. Dedication to the education of the young child was a special contribution to the International Year of the Child. The specific objectives of the workshop were:

(i) to sensitize participants with the psychological problems, social, political and economic environment of the African child in his early years.

(ii) to enable participants to draw appropriate lessons from (i) for catering for educational needs of the early childhood education.

(iii) to inculcate the skills necessary for the design of curriculum and sample materials for early childhood education in African countries.

The participants who were sponsored by their Curriculum Development Centres represented 18 African Countries. The consultants were drawn from African Curriculum Centres and Universities, the German Foundation for International Development, UNESCO Regional Office Daka and UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg. Observers from Local Institutions and International Organisations like UNICEF also attended the workshop.

Plenary sessions were held during the first week of the workshop to discuss leading papers and raise other general issues. The last two weeks were set aside for practical sessions. These were undertaken in four phases:-

(i) group discussions and elaboration of methods of work

(ii) groups working separately

(iii) plenary for intergroup exchange ideas

(iv) plenaries for discussions on specialised topics, problems or information.

There were four working groups for the practical sessions.

The report is in two volumes. Volume I deals with the general proceedings of the workshop. It includes the following sections:

Part	I	-	Foundation papers
Part	II	-	Country profiles
Part	III	-	Working group reports
Part	IV	-	Opening session addresses
Part	V	-	Evaluation of the workshop

Volume II presents the proceeding of the practical sessions and examples of the curriculum materials that were developed. It is divided into four sections:-

Part	I	-	Developing Language Skills in Early Childhood.
Part	II	-	Developing Scientific behaviour, Computational and Manipulative skills in Early Childhood.
Part	III	-	Using Local Resources and Materials for Education Toys in African Countries
Part	IV	-	Catering for Children with Special Needs.

July, 1980

CONTENTS

Preface i

Introduction ii

Foundation Papers

The Developmental Tasks of the African Child 1

The Socio-Cultural Environment of the African Child 7

The African Traditional Forms of Early Childhood Education 28

Training the African Teacher for Early Childhood Education 35

African Political and Economic Realities: Implications for Early Childhood Education 48

Evaluation in Early Childhood Learning and Teaching 64

Country Papers

The Role and Functions of the Kenya Institute of Education in Kenya's Educational Development 70

Training the African Teacher for Early Childhood Education 83

The Status of Early Childhood Education in Kenya 92

The Status of Early Childhood Education in Liberia 103

The State of Early Childhood Education in Zambia 111

Early Childhood and Basic Education in Ghana 118

Trends in Primary School Curriculum and Curriculum Development in England and in the Federal Republic of Germany 125

Working Group Reports

Developing Language Skills in Early Childhood 162

Developing Scientific Behaviour, Computation and Manipulative Skills in Early Childhood 171

Using Local Resources and Materials for Educational Toys in African Countries 176

Opening Ceremony Addresses 179

Evaluation of the Workshop 183

Appendices 186

THE DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF AN AFRICAN CHILD

Dr. J. Igaga
Kenyatta University College
Nairobi, Kenya.

Africa is a vast continent varying in climate right from the desert in the North to the temperate climate in the South. Therefore, the people too vary. Many people tend to say that all Africans are the same. True as it may be, it is equally true that there are very noticeable traditional differences between the Kenyan tribes, the Ugandan tribes, the Nigerian tribes, to mention but a few, as far as social economic organisation is concerned. The differences are even made wider when one thinks of how far and varied technology has penetrated the African countries. So it is sometimes erroneous to talk of "An African Child".

After having said that, however, it is also correct to say that there are certain aspects of African life which can be traced in almost all African societies. For example there has been substantial evidence (Kaye, 1962, Denise Paulme, 1963, and Biesheuvel, 1959) that an African married woman does not regard herself truly fulfilled unless she has children. Many more examples can be cited to show that there can be what one may call an African attitude - but we know that attitudes influence the development of an individual.

Does Geber's (1957) theory of precocity apply to African children!

Geber's theory states that there is a natural schedule of development for newborn babies and infants, which is usually followed until cultural differences begin to influence the direction and pace of growth.

After testing a number of children in Kampala and around, Geber reported that children from less well to do families were more precocious than those from wealthy ones. Quite interesting results. Geber, however tended to suggest that "no explanation was offered for the precocity, but it was fairly clear that it had a genetic basis". Since then, no one has actually tried to establish the other social factors which influence the development of the African child.

In 1969 a great controversy developed in Western Countries sparked off by Arthur Jensen of Berkeley University, California, that Africans were of much inferior intelligence than the other "races" since some loves primates' infants were precocious. It is profitless to involve oneself, or even the reader in this useless argument of African inferiority or even superiority. There have been subsequent research in different countries in Africa to test the Geber theory. Of great interest to us is that Freedman D.C. testing in West Africa, and Leiderman testing in 1970 in Kenya found African children to be precocious.

On the other hand, many people have rejected these research results mainly on the basis of methodology. There are also research results as outlined in Mallory Wober's book, which fail to support Geber's theory.

After talking about precocity, it is just right that the idea of cognitive development is discussed. As in European or Western communities, there are marked differences between socially and educationaly advantaged and disadvantaged children. The foundation in research on cognitive development was laid by the Swiss Philosopher, Piaget. In all, Piaget set two rules. The first is that development must take place in a logical sequence. The second rule which is a more controversial one, is that the development of the stages through which the child passes depends on biological or neurological maturation; and these stages will come by at the same mental age ranges, irrespective of cultural or educational differences. There have been several studies to test this theory directly or indirectly. These include: Abiola (1965), and Barbara Lloyd (1971) in Nigeria. Geber (1960) Durojaiye (1973) Otaala (1969) and Okonji (1971) in Uganda; Deregowski and Serpell (1971), and Heron and Simonsson (1969) in Zambia, only to name but a few. The evidence we have got now shows that African children are not in any way inferior. In fact some aspects show that African children have a manifested cognitive potential even in educationally disadvantaged areas.

What is recognised is that most African children do not score high on Western tests, as may of course be expected. This evidence is provided by psychologists like Otaala (1971) and Yoloye (1971). The reason advanced by most psychologists for the low performance of African children on these western tests of intelligence is that the tests themselves are not culture fair. In fact psychologists like Biesheuvel in South Africa argue that it is not possible to devise culture fair tests especially for African Communities. This should remind us of the Hudson experiment of 3 D tests. In 1976 the author wanted to adjust the experiment to suit his own ethnic group. The antelope, elephant and the man were

replaced with a distant house, a near house, rain and a little boy respectively. Ten young boys were individually asked to say if it rained to which house would the little boy in the picture go for shelter? - (in the child's language which was the same as the authors) various answers were received ranging from "I do not know" to "which would be the house for my mother's co-wife?", to "he does not go to either because it does not look to be raining very much in the picture". The author has not gone back yet.

More recent research say by Bakare in Nigeria and Durojaiye in Uganda have tended to be interested in social class as a determinant of the development of mental abilities. These researchers point out that may be parental behaviour and attitudes have a great share in the shaping of children's mental ability and development. Davitz (in Wober, 1975) observed better verbal performance in Luganda than in English but no difference in the overall performance when he tested Uganda boys.

Yoloye (1971) also observed that pupils in higher school classes commanding better English language improved more in verbal tests than had happened with non-verbal tests.

It must be mentioned here that the traditional African child has been found to develop faster on the motor skills than the Western children. Vast evidence was collected in Kenya by the Munroes (1971-72) and several others. One is tempted to attribute this to culture and tradition. It is very well known that African children are never left alone - except when they are sleeping. But even then, a little child must be playing around or the adult must not, be too far. The baby is carried about, handled in several ways, and in the process encouraged and stimulated to develop his muscles.

Lastly, mention must be made of the socialization aspects of African children. Here, there has been relatively little done and so the evidence is scanty. It has been just pointed out that the child is never left alone right from birth. The author gave his master of Education students as one of the essay topics "The child rearing practices in my home area". The two year students so far that have been able to write these essays show consistently that the child is "greeted" right from the time when it arrives from the mother's womb, although the method differs from tribe to tribe. The child has to learn, in a stepwise manner, how to get on with the many relatives around him. It is reported by Ainsworth (1967) that it is not unusual for a four year girl to be left in charge of her younger brothers in the home, among the Baganda of Uganda; and that this four year old girl can prepare food for even up to four people. So the African children tend to be more socially mature than their Western counterparts because of tradition.

Well, there are some searching questions to ask as to what all this means to us educators and more particularly curriculum developers.

Firstly, we know that in most African traditions there are developmental land marks ranging from birth ceremonies, to weaning, circumcision, to marriage. What are their educational implications? For example do we encourage birth ceremonies? Do we encourage breast feeding? Has circumcision a hardening function which is educationally useful?

Secondly, there is no evidence that African children are in any way disadvantaged. For that matter, how do we look more closely into the aspects that are likely to be influencing intellectual development? As curriculum developers how do we clarify the various facets of the school experiences?

Thirdly should we or should we not encourage the social maturational aspects most children are expected to carry out in homes? If we do encourage them will it reduce the dual nature of educational experiences a child encounters in the home and school?

Lastly, we should frame our curriculum in such a way that as well as our children feeling African, they should take up the challenge to contribute equally and effectively towards international issues just like the children of other races. Statements like "Let us do it the African way" or phrases like the "African personality" may be misleading or even dangerous.

We must, however, be careful how we go about changing the curriculum. A curriculum change which does not have the blessing of the general population is bound to fail.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Kaye, B. Bringing up children in Ghana
London: Allen & Unwin 1962

Paulme, D. Women of Tropical Africa.
London: Rontledge & Kegan Paul 1963

Biesheuvel S. African Intelligence
Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations, 1943.

Race, Culture and Personality.
Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations 1959.

Geber, M.& Dean R.F.A. The State of Development of Newborn African Children Lancet, 1957, 272, 1216, - 1219.

Hudson, W. Pictorial depth perception in subcultural groups in Africa.
Psychologia Africana, 1962, 9, 226 - 239

Cultural Problems in Pictorial perception.
South African Journal of Science, 1962, 58, 189-195.

Leiderman, P.H. Some contributions of child development research to African Psychiatry in A.L. Raman (ED.) Proceedings of 2nd Pan African Psychiatric Workshop. Mauritius: Government Printer 1970.

Lloyd, B. The Intellectual development of Yoruba children A re-examination. J. Cross Cultural. Psychology. 1971, 2, 29 - 38

Abiola, E.T. The nature of intellectual development of Nigerian children. Teacher Education, 1965, 6, 37 - 57.

Durojaiye M. O. A. Early Childhood, Child rearing practices - Two African urban communities: Ibadan and Kampala. An Inter-African cross cultural study. 1st African Regional Conference of the International Association of Cross-cultural Psychology. Behavioural Sciences Research Unit, University, Ibadan 1973.

Wober, M. Psychology in African International African Institute London 1975.

Otaala, B. Performance of Ugandan African Children on some Piagetian Conservation tasks. An exploratory Investigation. In H.A. El Abd (Ed.) Readings in Education Psychology in East Africa Book Two. Department of Education Psychology Makerere University 1971.

Okonji, O.M. Differential effects of rural and urban upbringing on the development of cognitive styles. International J. of Psychology, 1969, 4, 293 - 305

Deregowski J.B. and Serpell R. Performance on a sorting task: A cross cultural experiment. International J. Psychology, 1971, 6, 273 - 281

Heron A. and Simonsson, M. Weight conservation - Zambian Children. A non-verbal approach. International J. Psychology 1969, 4, 281 - 296

Yoloye, E.A. The effect of schooling on the performance of bilingual students in tests of intelligence Research in Education, 1971, 5, 25 - 34.

Bakare, C.G.M. Social - class differences - the performance of Nigerian children on the Draw - a - Man test. In L.J. Cronbach and P.J.D. Drenth (Ed.) Mental Tests and Cultural Adaptations. The Hague: Monton 1972.

Ainsworth, M.D. Infancy - Uganda Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press 1967.

Munroe, R.H. and Munroe, R.L. Effects of environmental Experience on spatial ability in an East African Society. J. Social Psychology 1971, 83, 15 - 22

THE SOCIO - CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE AFRICAN CHILD IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR EARLY EDUCATION

Dr. R.M. Nyonyintono
Department of Sociology,
University of Nairobi.

Introduction

The socio-cultural environment of the school-going African Child can be looked at from a number of perspectives. It includes the home environment and the modern culture of science and technology which is formally transmitted through school. It can be argued that the African child today lives in the midst of two different cultures, the African or indigenous culture and the modern culture and the two consistitute the socio-cultural environment which the curriculum planner has to bear in mind.

In this paper we shall focus mostly on those aspects which relate to the socio-eccnomic factors and their implications for curriculum development. The paper is in three parts. In part A we describe the socio-cultural environment in terms of the social, cultural and economic dimensions. We also discuss the effect of modernization on the socio-cultural environment of the child today and go on to describe the modern socio-cultural environment of the child from the point of view of the rural-urban and socio-economic factors as they interact in influencing the family background of the child.

In part B we deal with the issue of continuity between the home and the school. The question raised is; what are the important trends which start while the child is at home but must continue through school? The related question is how best can bad or poor start be corrected in the school?

In part C we deal with the issues underlying curriculum development. The major issue raised deal with the assumptions we make in defining the objectives for education and the nature of the child the school system is meant to cater for.

A. The Socio-Cultural Environment

The socio-cultural environment includes the people, the culture and for the modern individual the processes of modernization resulting from science and technology. A brief description of the nature of each of these follows.

(A) People

By this we mean the type and nature of social groups to which an individual belongs. The first and most fundamental social group for any individual should be the family. The people who constitute the family of the child will contribute in significant ways to the nature of environment in which he grows up.

In many parts of the world today, the socio-cultural environment of the family will vary in relation to the level of education of the parents. The level of education will determine other important aspects of the style of life in the family. For instance, it will determine the occupation and income of the family. The income will determine important factors like area of residence, diet, type of school, medical services, style of recreation; indeed the socio-cultural environment of the family.

If we compare families on the criteria of level of education of the parents, we might find important differences among them in relation to how much or otherwise they can contribute to the school success of the child. For example, a family where one or both parents have attained a high level of education e.g. a university degree, will be significantly different from a family where only one or none of the parents have primary school education. The family with university education due to the parents longevity in the formal educational system, will have internalised many of the values and culture of formal educational institutions. They will act as models of academic achievement to their children. They will be in a position to follow-up what the child is doing in school and help facilitate the learning of the child. But even more important than that, they will provide a home environment which is conducive to success in school.

The family with primary school education might aspire for academic achievement as much as any other family, in fact, this happens all the time. However, the same family will be severely limited in how much it can contribute towards the academic success of their child.

First, it will be limited financially in that there will be little money to be spent on every aspect of life including the education of the child. In many parts of Africa today, the quality of education is still strongly related to how much one can pay. This state of affairs has set in motion a vicious circle of social stratification which favours the

rich and at the same time makes it increasingly difficult for a child from a poor family to make a break-through.

Secondly, the daily experiences of the child in a family where parents have no or little education will be limited particularly as far as exposure to modern scientific experiences are concerned. The limitations will affect the level of cognitive development of the child.

The other factors which relate to the contribution of people in the socio-cultural environment of the child are the actual performance of roles within the family and the community by the adult members of the family. Adult members of the family, like the father, or mother, will, in the process of performing various adult social roles learn skills for social interaction with members of the society. The skills such members acquire will depend on the specific roles they play e.g. their profession, type of work and who they come in contact with. However, the skills learned will be utilized for interaction in the family in many subtle ways. If the parents have been exposed to limited social roles, then they will have limited social skills to utilize in the family. The children, in turn, will have a limited source of skills to learn from. For example, parents who work in occupations where they deal with many different people in varied social roles will develop a wide variety of skills for social inter-action. They will use some of the skills in performing their family roles e.g. mediation among family members or other people outside the family, motivating others for work and achievement, showing and teaching leadership skills and similar activities. Furthermore, they will utilize the contacts made at or through work or related social interaction to the benefit of the family. Children growing up in such families will thus develop a wide variety of social skills. Given the fact that school socialisation is in large measure preparation for the modern professions and occupations; they will be at an advantage. They will be prepared for successful performance in school tasks than children whose parent's occupations have few or limited experiences for social interaction.

This argument might sound out of place in many African traditions. In many of African Societies there were cultural patterns and systems of doing things which cut across social class differences. This tended to make for flexible or fluid social class differences across a given society. In fact, less than a decade or two, it was possible for a bright child to attain complete upward social mobility through education. This is because most children were coming from homes where parents had no or very little formal education or contact with foreign cultures. Formal education and its culture were equally alien to all Africans. There were more or less comparable family background experiences in relation to schooling. Not so any more. Today, one's family background, particularly prior exposure to modern culture and professional skills will make a big difference. Furthermore, the quality of education a child gets and the consequent success, as already mentioned is increasingly getting to be linked with the socio-economic background of the family.

The point to emphasize for curriculum development is that, at least for early education, we must pay due attention to the family background differences among children when they first enter school and aim at closing the gap among them rather than perpetuating the original differences.

B. The Culture

Culture is the embodiment of a people's style of life. It is the way a given society relates to its environment and gives meaning to the daily activities of its members. All cultures deal with the same basic needs of human life both the material and non-material. However, cultures differ widely in the specific ways in which the basic needs like the need for food, shelter, love, ... are met. Each society designs its culture to suit the prevailing physical and social conditions.

We can differentiate two major aspects of culture, the material and the non-material culture. By material culture we mean the tangible creations of a society like tools, houses, clothing, utensils and the like. Non-material culture includes the society's systems of values, knowledge, beliefs, the type of skills and style of life which a society develops through years of shared experiences and accumulation of wisdom.

Everyone is born into an ongoing society and culture. He learns the culture through a process of socialisation by which culture is transmitted from generation to generation. The culture into which one is born and the socialisation experience one undergoes will determine the meaning they attach to life and the way they see and interprete everything in the world. The cultural background of an individual is a key factor in everything to do with that individual.

We can use the example of culture and food to illustrate the point about the importance of cultural background. In every society, people learn to eat and enjoy what is defined as food in their culture and to astain from what is tabooed. The way a society selects what is defined as food, will introduce biases in the diet. The nutritional content of the staple foodstuff will thus determine whether or not the diet is adequate. People, especially children, feeding on such a diet will be affected in many ways as a result of their cultural diet. Diets with high nutritional content (balanced diets) will facilitate proper growth among children and vise versa. Efforts to improve or enrich a cultural diet will depend on whether or not the fundamental values and attitudes underlying it are violated or accommodated.

The argument about cultural items can be extended to all areas of life. The cultural background determines the experiences to which an individual is exposed; the particular view of the world they have, the abilities and potentials which develop or remain dormant. In other words, the cultural background forms the baseline against which to measure one's ability, needs and future growth and development. From the point of view of education, culture will determine the types of skills which are developed in a child and the level to which they are developed. It should thus determine the point of departure for any organised system of teaching.

C. Modern Science and Technology

The single most important factor to appreciate in the socio-cultural environment today is the influence of science and technology. The child, today, grows up in a rapidly changing environment because inventions in science and technology dictate the life style of everyone. A few examples might help to clarify the point.

Medical science has affected the life of everyone especially children in Africa. Many children who would have died before school-age now survive into adulthood. This has had a direct effect on school systems in many nations. For instance, the improvement in infant mortality rates is translated into rapidly increasing school-going populations. Many developing nations are finding it hard to keep the pace of school expansion in line of the rate of population growth. The result is overcrowding and lowering of standards due to the fact that a teacher in a crowded class is limited in the quality of education he is capable of providing. The problem becomes even more acute when it is coupled with a desire to attain free, universal primary education as a national objective.

However, although the mortality rate has dropped significantly, the general quality of life of many children who survive illness as infants varies a great deal. The socio-economic factor is again in operation here. While many children are exposed to modern medical knowledge long before they are born. The degree of sophistication in utilising medical facilities varies widely among parents. Some parents are in a position to benefit from the inventions others are not. The effect of modern science and technology on a given child has to be evaluated within the context of the socio-economic background of the family.

In general though, many families are providing children with improved socio-cultural environments as a result of modern inventions like food products, vaccination, pre- and post-natal medical advice and the use of contraceptives. The general level of parents and children's health is improved. More and more families are getting children when they can afford to care for and education them.

One major improvement in parent-child interaction has been changes in the attitude of parents to children. A parent who is in a position to control the pace at which the family expands will be more likely to feel positive towards the birth of a child than otherwise. Studies in child psychology and education have shown that the attitude of a parent towards the child is easily transmitted to the growing child and influences the child's outlook on life. A child who feels wanted in the family develops confidence. Confidence is an important personality trait in learning.

D. The Socio - Economic, Rural-Urban Indices.

Much as many Africans would like to believe in classless societies or egalitarian principles of life; the process of modernization is rapidly creating social classes in Africa. The child's environment today, is very much influenced by socio-economic factors.

In this paper, we pay attention to two of them, namely, the rural-urban continuum and the socio-economic index. A combination of these two factors leads to a clustering together of related factors which in turn determine the socio-cultural environment of an individual. We discuss the combination of the above two factors under six different categories. We divide the rural and the urban into three income categories thus the:-

(a) rural high income

(b) middle,

(c) low income groups and the urban

(d) high

(e) middle and

(f) low income groups

The important factor is not so much the income in itself but the style of life it leads to and consequently the socio-cultural environment of the child growing up in such an environment.

(a) The Rural High Income Group (e.g. above KShs.5,000/- per month). This group includes people like large-scale commercial farmers, traders, businessmen and people in similar occupations. They overlap the rural and urban environment. In fact, in many respects they have more in common with the urban than the rural environment because their style of consumption is influenced by urban standards.

They have the resources to support life in the rural and urban areas simultaneously. As a result, their children move freely between the rural and urban environment. Such children are at an advantage because they move freely between the rural and the urban environments. They are exposed to the best in both. This broadens the context of their socio-cultural experiences. For instance, if the family owns a farm, the children will have first-hand experience of the processes of nature.

Early education dependsvery much on sensual experiences. Children who have a chance to see touch, manipulate things and observe nature at work learn fast and retain a lot. Children who can see and handle farm animals and crops as they grow, reproduce and die will benefit from the exposure. They will understand these processes and be ready to learn the scientific principles underlying the processes they see around them.

(b) The Rural Middle Income Group (e.g. KShs.1000/- to 5,000/- per month). This constitutes of civil servants and other professionals working in the rural areas e.g. teachers, nurses, doctors, agricultural and other extension workers. The group covers a wide range of professional skills and styles of life. The style of life of this group is improved by the fact that the family will most likely be able to grow their own food thus "stretch" the income a bit further. Compared to the town dweller, the rural middle class has more money to spend on family needs, excluding food, than the urban middle class.

However, several other factors will influence their socio-cultural environment, for example, much will depend on the parent's attitude towards the child's needs, especially the need for free play. A parent who values a good quality of education and other experiences of the child will enrich the home environment accordingly. For instance, he will allow creative play by providing space and facilities like toys,swings, climbing facilities, sheds for playhouses and other creative play materials. The home may or may not have pets but there might be domestic animals to facilitate learning about nature.

Parents differ in their attitudes towards how much children should be free to play and amuse themselves. The attitude is partly a result of cultural norms and partly the parent's own childhood experience. Some cultural norms encourage a high degree of freedom for children to play and do things on their own. In such cultures you tend to find that children develop quite sophisticated games and social skills. The competence developed in play is an asset in the school experience.

However, some cultures restrict children from free play. Such cultures tend to enforce directed work and obedience or subordination of children to adults. Such cultures develop skills for routine work but might not be so good when it comes to creativity, imagination and innovation.

Rural homes tend to have a lot of domestic labour especially as a result of a subsistence pattern of family life. The parent might be tempted to deny children free play and confine them to routine work undully. This will limit the skills which a child develops.

A word of caution is in order here. We are not saying that children who are made to work hard do not develop any skills, rather we are saying that the attitudes and demands for work lead to the development of different types of skills. In fact this can happen at any level. Furthermore, studies of rural and urban children have shown that the two environments lead to the development of different social and cognitive skills. Whiting (1970, 1974)in a study of rural and urban Kenyan and American children, discovered that rural children, who participate meaningfully in the family subsistence economy develop certain social skills. They develop a high degree of responsibility, nurturance, cooperation and obedience. The urban American children, however, given a competitive cash economy, develop a high degree of independence and competitiveness. Studies elsewhere have shown other systematic differences resulting from child-rearing patterns physical environment and attitudes towards children, work, and school. Ainsworth (1962), Gesell (1950), Morrison and McIntyre (1971), Segal (1966) and Welbourn (1963).

The family background of a child dictates the socio-cultural environment in which he grows. The environment, including the attitude of the rest of the family will influence the kind of skills which develop. All environments and all attitudes produce certain skills in an individual. However, some will be more relevant for formal education than others. The important fact for curriculum development is to know which skills have or have not been developed and how they contribute to or hinder formal education.

(c) The Rural low income group (e.g. up to KShs.1,000/-. Most people in this group will earn much less about KShs.300/- a month). The rural poor are at a double disadvantage. They experience the disadvantages of being away from the urban centres which in most cases are the nucleus of social services like schools, hospitals, roads and community and social work expertise. By being in rural areas they are also removed from the nucleus of major modernizing forces like industrialisation, large population centres and the social and entertainment services which emerge with urbanisation. All these and related services and facilities enrich the socio-cultural environment of the urban dweller. The rural dweller is at a relative disadvantage in this respect.

The second disadvantage of the rural poor is, of course, poverty. The rural poor have no or very limited financial and other sources of income and assets. For instance, they may be employed in a very low income job like cattle keeping or other forms of labour for the rural upper and middle class. They might be employed as unskilled workers in rural institutions like schools, hospitals, shops and the like. They may have a small plot of land i.e. an acre or less. The level of poverty will be greatly reduced if the family has piece of land to grow food. Where there is no land, the family will be at a considerable disadvantage given their low income and relative lack of public services in rural areas.

A child growing up in such a family will have very little besides nature in his environment. The family might require such a child to contribute to family sub-sistence from a very early age. We have already discussed the merits of a child's participation in family subsistence. However, children can easily be overworked by desperate parents. The amount of work assigned children might rob them of opportunities to engage in free play and exploration of nature both of which are essential for their development.

A child develops very limited skills if this happens. If such a child were to attend formal school, he will need a curriculum that is geared towards developing a wide spectrum of skills. The curriculum developer will also need to bear in mind that such a child comes from a background where the home and school might impose conflicting demands on his time. Whenever possible the curriculum should be flexible enough to accommodate the demands of both thus helping the child to adjust. Experience has shown that poor children tend to drop out of school before attaining any useful skills for modern life. One of the reasons for this is that the burden of conflicting demands causes loss of interest in the school.

(d) The urban high income group (over KShs.5,000/- per month). includes the top executives in the government and private sector. In many cases, this group has power and money. In a large number of the cases, the parents at least the father is educated and travelled. They tend to have a good idea about what the "good"[1] schools are. Very often the "good" schools are also expensive but they can afford to send the child to such schools.

The children often have a richly endowed environment at home; for example; they eat well, have access to educational experiences like going places for recreation, travelling extensively, toys and other means of exposure to modern life especially the world of science and technology.

Notwithstanding, children of the urban upper class have their problems. Their parents tend to lead a very busy life especially the fathers. As a result they have very little close interaction with their parents. They are brought up by paid workers. The frequent travel and public exposure of the family sometimes hinders the adjustment of the children to any routine style of life and that includes school. They need a type of curricula that takes into account the hectic style of life in their families, for such a child should cater for a close relationship between school personnel and the parents especially the mother and the teacher need to work in a very close relationship in order to help the child to adjust to the demands of school life.

(e) The Urban Middle Income Group (KShs.1,000/- to 5,000/- per month). This constitutes the professionals like secondary school teachers, doctors, accountants, engineers of university degree level and above. Families in this category are in a position to provide educative socio-cultural environments for their children. They earn a decent income; live in respectable areas; can afford to expose the child to teaching

experiences like trips to the zoo, parks, agricultural and other shows, film and the like. They can subscribe for children's clubs like brownies, libraries, museum and for extra curricula experiences like swimming and music lessons.

Very often, especially for teachers and related professions, the parents are educated enough to be aware of innovations in methods of teaching. They will select schools for their children not only on the criteria of the 3 R's but also on other child development needs. The parents themselves are models for children's academic aspirations.

By far, this is the most advantaged group of children in formal education. Their home/background is very similar to the socio-cultural environment of the school. As such, they adjust easily and have many supportive experiences at home. Their parents having internalised the values of formal education tend to communicate well with the teachers. In doing so they utilise the parent teacher link to the advantage of their children.

(f) The Urban low income group (below KShs.1,000/- per month). Many studies have been done on the urban poor. Several characteristics have been associated with the urban poor across cultures, national and even continental boundaries. Sociologically, poverty is defined in terms of "how much one lacks to meet the basic or minimum requirements of life." Once an individual's income is below poverty level, several factors tend to cluster together to produce a life style which Oscar Lewis has called the culture of poverty.

A child growing up in such a sub-culture will experience an environment where:

(i) Poverty tends to show a persistent pattern and is passed on from generation to generation along family lines. In terms of aspirations and motivation for schooling such a child will have very little or nothing to persuade him to aspire for high academic goals because there will be no or little history of success in the family.

(ii) The family and community the child comes from will have its modes of life which will lead to distinctive social and psychological consequences on its members. This means that it will be wrong to plan a curriculum based on middle or upper class modes of life and impose it on the urban or even rural poor without modifying it. The general curriculum has to be translated to bring meaning into the life of the poor. Unfortunately no attempt is made to meet the poor half way in most national school curricula and children from this group are expected either to adjust; officially be classified as failures or opt out of the system completely. None of these alternatives is satisfactory.

The socio-cultural experience of the urban poor will have the following and similar characteristics; they have little money no savings and no economic security or any other security, for that matter. The state of insecurity is experienced by all members of the family including the children. Problems like unemployment cannot be hidden from children. They see its consequences and learn to share their parents worry and anxiety at a very tender age.

They live in an up hazard style; buying if and when money is available, very often in small amounts thus getting very little for their money. The meagre amounts of money make it very difficult for both adults and children to learn the culture of a cash economy. For example, there is never enough money to learn to take advantage of money-saving tricks like buying the bigger for less or buying when prices are low or even investing and saving.

The pupil's cultural mode of life is important to understand when developing curriculum. One should ask the question whether or not or how far the skills and values advocated by the formal school system overlap those of the culture of the pupil. Very often the school system assumes an urban, middle class or professional class background and values. For instance, it assumes that pupils are motivated to learn, and aspire for high academic goals. It also assumes that pupils have already internalised values which facilitate working in situations where the reward might not be immediate or obvious. It assumes many other things which might not be true in the background of many pupils.

However, before we can inculcate school-oriented values we have to introduce them to the children whose original background lacked in them. This points to the fact that, for the majority of children in Africa, we need to include in our curricula, activities and teaching methods which are aimed at compensating for lack of relevant socio-cultural experiences for formal education.

(g) The Issue of Continuity

In this section we look at the two major social institutions which constitute the environment of the child and how they relate to each other. The family and home constitute the first social group. The role of the family is to facilitate the process of growth and development through providing for the basic needs of the child like food, shelter, love, belonging.... The family also transmits the culture through the process of socialisation. As already pointed out, the members of the family will transmit culture from the vintage point of their own family subculture. In doing so they will transmit a particular version of life to the child.

Sooner or later, every individual widens his circle of contact beyond the family group. Other social agencies like the peer groups, play groups, church, school and professional groups all play their part in socialising the individual and transmiting attitudes, values, skills... for the effective participation of the individual in society. Each of the

agencies has its system of values and style of transmitting them. As well as that, different socio-economic classes have their peculiar styles of socialisation. So while all social agencies might be engaged in transmitting culture from the old generation to the young or to the newcomer; each agency will take on a different character in the sub-culture of a given social class.

The family is a basic social institution in all societies. However its role and effectiveness varies from one social class to another. The school on the other hand, is basically a middle class (professional class) institution. Its role and style of operation reflects professional class values and standards. Yet, we find that in modern society, it is taken for granted that every child, regardless of socio-economic background can benefit from a standardized type of school experience. The assumption about a universal usefulness of education can only be true if we cater for educational needs in terms of the family background of the school-going child. In other words, education can only be useful if it is introduced in continuity to the basic needs and experiences of a growing child. Such a child is socialised simultineously by both the home and the school. The two social institutions ought to facilitate each other's role in order to cater fully for the needs of the child. It is in the light of this argument that we raise the issue of continuity between the home and the school in the areas of:-

(a) socialisation

(b) physical and

(c) personality development.

(a) The process of Socialisation

Socialisation in the home has far-reaching influence on the life of the individual. The growing child comes into contact with the rest of society through the values, attitudes, beliefs, skills... which are transmitted by family members. The process of socialisation should be cumulative such that new experiences consolidate previous ones and pave the way for future socialisation. Unfortunately for many children in Africa, the home and school operate as two parallel institutions instead of complementing each other. Worse still, the school often undoes or ignores what the home does. As a result, the two institutions tend to impose conflicting demands on children coming from certain backgrounds.

Conflicting demands arise from the fact that the home might be socialising the child according to traditional indagenous culture while the school tends towards the culture of science and technology, for example, the home might insist on a traditional differentiation of sex-roles thus encouraging the development of different skills in boys and girls. The school, on the other hand, might be designed on principles of equal opportunity thus expecting all children to acquire the same skills. This might create a number of conflicts.

The principle of equal opportunity in education can work only after compensation has been made where skills have not been developed or earlier opportunities were missed, denied, or neglected prior to school experience. The school curriculum should be flexible enough to allow for compensation thus reduce conflict. Many other areas of conflict arise out of a disparity between the cultural background of the home and the school.

The cultural gap created between the home and the school is a hindrance to education. The issue of lack of continuity can be approached from many angles. From the point of view of curriculum development, it points to the need to integrate the cultural environment underlying the socialisation process in both institutions.

(b) The Process of Physical Development

Actually, physical development should be taken as nature's framework for socialisation and education. Nature has its own time-table that is why a child of six months cannot walk or talk. Yet in the span of the first six months of life, a child matures on a number of levels and acquires many skills at a very fast rate. In general, the process of physical development is from the large muscles like those of the neck, hands and legs to the small muscles like the fingers and toes. Skills can only be mastered in relation to the level of muscular development attained. This point is very important in planning curricula for early education especially for pre-school children.

A curriculum which misses the point about the natural trend of physical development will end in many problems. Children will fail to learn, be frustrated and turned against school if they are made to learn skills which they are not mature enough to acquire both mentally and physically. The frustration carries over from the experience of failure to a new learning experience.

The other factor to bear in mind is that different parts of the body have peak-periods for development. The maturation and peak of development is very often accompanied by interest and motivation to utilise a related skill. For example a child who has matured enough to make a given sound or combination of sounds will focus on the new skill until another skill overshadows it. The schedule of skills to be learned should coincide as much as possible with the readiness of the child. This is the time when interest and motivation is high and learning is fast and easy. The consequences of missing the peak-periods are even more serious for education because then learning is slow and difficult.

Most early learning will be in relation to the senses, i.e. sight, hearing, touch and smell. Each of these has its pattern and pace of development. The process of development can be enhanced or hindered by the socio-cultural environment a child is exposed to. We have already pointed out this aspect in discussing the different socio-economic environments in part A.

The learning process in early childhood should be planned with a view to creating (at home and at school) an environment which has facilities for stimulating and facilitating the growth and development of all the senses. The school curriculum should be broadened to include specific advice to parents on how best to help children grow and develop properly.

Unfortunately for education in Africa, the biggest mistakes in early education have been:-

(a) failure to appreciate the natural processes of growth and cater for them by creating suitable learning experiences

(b) lack of continuity between the home and school which are the two vital institutions for the modern child.

(c) Personality Development.

Here we are mostly concerned with the role of the socio-cultural environment in molding the personality of an individual. In-born personality traits are always being modified by experience.

People become what they are through the experiences they undergo. Personality development starts long before formal school. Parents and other people in the child's world will have already "sown the seeds" for personality development by then. Some children will thus have started the process of "slow death" which results from harsh criticism and other forms of negative feedback to the child. This presents peculiar problems for education.

How is the curriculum planner or the teacher to know what personality problems exist or how to solve them? Under present circumstances, the teacher is not in a position to do so. He has neither the expertise, time or energy to do this. He lacks the training and is overworked at school. However, the curriculum planner ought to make allowance for a teacher to be able to meet parent and child together so as to observe the parent-child interaction process and its effect on the personality of the child.

There are particular personality traits which are essential for education such as confidence, independence, high motivation, concentration and the like. The process of developing them should start at home and continue through school. However, it does not mean that nothing can be done where such traits have not developed or where the opposite has taken place. The school has a role to cultivate these traits and eradicate traits which under proper personality development and education.

(d) The home and the School

The argument so far shows that the home and the school are two adjacent points in a long cumulative and continuous process of growth and development. One prepares the way for the other and the two complement each other. Unfortunately for many children, the home tends to end where the school starts. Nevertheless school-going children continue to move back and forth between home and school. This has its consequences most of them negative for personality development and for education.

The role of education is to integrate the experience of the individual. The curriculum should be planned with a view to integrating the experience of the home and of the school. From what we have said about the socio-cultural environment of children, the process of integration will be easy or difficult depending on the socio-economic and educational level of the home. There will be many cases where the home experience has to be brought in line with the school experience. The teacher will need to see his role as extending beyond the classroom and the child to include the socio-cultural background of the child. This can best be achieved if the adults involved in socialising the child see a total and not segmented or departmentalised child.

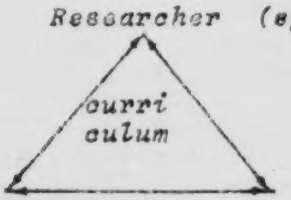
Implications for Curriculum

The implications of the socio-cultural environment is largely determined by the objectives we set in education and the methods we use to achieve them. The implications also depend on the assumptions we make about children and how right or wrong we are in making those assumptions. For Africa, we have to be realistic about the limitations we as educators and planners face and the attitudes we adopt towards those limitations.

(a) Objectives:

Here I mean simply the need for every curriculum planner and educator to ask himself and meaningfully answer the questions; what am I trying to achieve with the child? Is this what I should do for the child? The history of education in Africa has been one of external forces determining educational objectives for African children. Somehow, this is bound to continue in many areas. However, some major breakthroughs have been made. Many governments are now in a position to get relevant information about the realities of African life and use this as the basis of curriculum development. This trend should be encouraged. Unfortunately, many of us are still tempted to look for answers to problems in education from so called experts who are not conversant with the realities of life in Africa.

The best way to plan curriculum should be through a triangle of team-work consisting of researcher, planner and implementer.



Planner (specialist, administrator)

Implementer (teacher, parent, child)

The three should operate through a system of constant feedback which enhances the role of each because each has a role to play in defining the objectives of an educational system.

The researcher and planner have expertise like knowledge of theory or current developments and new discoveries in methods of education. The researcher also helps through gathering data on the on-going processes and assessing the current practices.

The implementor e.g. the teacher has a wealth of experience from his role of putting ideas into practice. The parent might not have much experience in actual implementation of ideas; but as a client he is the one who evaluates the relationship between theory, practice and the childs aspirations. He is in a position to see whether or not education leads to a realisation of aspirations.

A curriculum will succeed in relation to how much it is in keeping with people's aspirations. The best example is the history of vocational education in Africa. Despite many attempts to introduce vocational education in schools, it still remains a second choice for many parents and children. This is because of people's aspirations and attitudes towards vocational education. It has been seen as an alternative for failures in other fields. The change in attitudes towards vocational education will come through changes in expectations and economic viability of vocational education; and a broadening of education and employment sectors to cater for both. The curriculum planner will need the backing from changed attitudes in order to succeed in establishing vocational education.

This points to the fact that the issue of education objectives can be discussed meaningfully only within a social context. This is because there are important differences among people and their socio-cultural experiences. Traditional educational planning fails the child because it only goes halfway i.e. it only defines the general without catering for the particular.

The argument in this paper is that we should go beyond that and allow for the particular and the peculiar.

The issue of what one should be doing in education is more in the realm of teacher training and of the assumptions we make about the child. The thrust in teacher training should be towards giving teachers skills for interpreting rather than following a syllabus. In other words, the implications here are not only implications for the curriculum of the child but also for the curriculum for teacher training and in-servicing of practicing teachers. What kind of training activities are likely to foster skills for interpreting content and situations? I will raise the question here and hope we can all contribute to the answer in the ensuing discussion.

(b) Assumptions About the Child.

Traditional methods of education emphasize similarities among children. That is why schools are organised in terms of children of the same chronological age, sometimes of the same sex, having to do the same things through a span of a year. That is why the syllabus is the same year after year. The assumption seems to be that children develop in a similar way at similar pace from generation to generation.

Current knowledge calls for different assumptions. While the general syllabus should give a general framework to guide the teacher, the teacher should not assume too much similarity among children. There will be differences in the level of development of each child at the beginning; the rate at which each develops and the inclination to learn different aspects of the syllabus. The differences will partly reflect the socio-cultural background and partly the personality of the children. None of these justifies branding as failures those children who do not fit the general or uniform approach.

(c) Limitations.

Here I want to discuss not actual limitations but attitudes towards limitations. For any one working in Africa, limitations are the order of the day. Many professionals have become such experts at discussing limitations that they have completely forgotten the other side of the coin i.e. seeing limitations as challenges to innovate. The attitude of the curriculum planner, teacher, parent and child should be that of seeking alternatives or ways of overcoming limitations and innovating in spite of limitations.

At present, the major limitations in early education are lack of clarity of objectives, expertise and domination of early education by later education. If by early education we mean pre-school and primary one to three or four; you find that very often there is no clear definition of objectives, in this area. This happens as a result of failure to appreciate several important factors in the life of the

child under the age of ten years. The objectives of early education are very often defined in terms of a highly competitive formal school system geared towards manpower training for middle and highly skilled professionals. That is why you find pre-school institutions teaching the 3 R's to children under four years of age. The educational system is turned into a machinery for teaching "tricks," for passing examinations and acquiring upward social mobility. Attitudes and aspirations in education have developed in a cult of examinations, manpower production and upward social mobility. The concern with these aspects of modern life has been emphasized out of proportion. It is possible to achieve both n education that embraces the whole child i.e. his physical, mental and social needs and still pass examinations, produce manpower, and achieve upward social mobility. This can be achieved with few modifications in the use of present resources and manpower provided the curriculum planner and teacher trainer understand the basic principles of total education in early childhood, can communicate it and sell it to the parent and child through successful early education programmes, a re-orientation of teacher training and a number of satisfied parents and children (satisfied customers.)

This seems to be a good point to stop and call for a general discussion. I therefore end the paper with a brief summary of the main points which have been raised.

(d) Summary:

In this paper we have described the socio-cultural environment of the child in terms of the people the child interacts with; the the culture which provides the vintage point through which he views the world. We have also described the environment in terms of the effect of modern science and technology and the changes it is creating in the styles of life of modern man. The thrust of the argument is that the socio-economic index provides us with a meaningful framework from which to discuss the socio-cultural environment. In that light, we have described six different environments based on a combination of socio-economic factors and rural-urban differences, and the implications of each type of environment for curriculum development.

The most productive approach to early education will be one where an effort is made to maintain continuity between the home and the school. The argument for this is based on observations of the process which start in infancy at home and continue into school and through life. We discussed, the processes of socialisation; physical, and personality development. We point out the fact that the home and school are two adjacent points in a life-long cumulative process and as such, they must complement and reinforce each other's role.

Several implications for curriculum development have been pointed out. Some arise from the objectives of education, others from the assumptions we make regarding the child. We have suggested that curriculum development should be in the direction of broadening the concept of education to include all the people who influence the socio-cultural environment of the child, namely parents and other members of the family.

The key person in educational change is the teacher. Our discussion has emphasized the fact that in order to affect the curriculum for early education, we ought to start by modifying the curriculum for teacher-training. The teacher needs to acquire skills for performing her role in a new context of the school and educational process. He ought to be able to evaluate and influence the socio-cultural environment of the child through meaningful interaction with parents and other people who constitute that environment.

REFERENCES

Ainsworth M. — Infancy in Uganda: Infant Care and the Growth of Love. Baltimore John Hopkins press 1962).

Braga Lausie and Joseph: — Learning and Growing: A Guide to Child Development. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice Hall 1975).

Fox L. — East African Childhood. (Nairobi, Oxford University Press. 1967).

Gesell A. — The First Five Years of Life: A Guide to the Study of the Pre-School Child. (London Methuen and Co. Ltd. 1950).

Ginsburg H. — Opper S. Piget's Theory of Intellectual Development: An Introduction. (Englewood Cliffs. N.J. Prentice Hall Inc. 1969).

Jameson K. Kidd P. — Pre-School Play. (London Studio Vista, Cassell Collier, MacMillan Publishers Ltd., (1974).

LeVine Robert and Barbara: — "Studying Child Rearin and Personality Development in an Eastern African Community." Annals of the New York Academy of Science 1962, pp. 620 - 628.

LeVine Robert: — "Western Schools in Non-Western Societies: Affective and Cognitive Responses." Presented at the Social Psychology, Social Structure and Personality, meeting of the American Sociological Association: Chicago, September 1977.

Montessori M.M. — The Psychological Background of the Montessori Material Within the Setting of Prepared Environment. (Association Montessori Internationale 1970).

Morrison A. and McIntyre D.: — Schools and Socialisation. (Penguin 1971).

Munroe R. and Ruth. — "Obidience Among Children in an East African Society." Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology. III 4 1972, pp. 395 - 399.

Whiting J. Child 1. — Child Training and Personality (New Haven. Yale University Press 1973).

Whiting B. — "The Effects of Urbanisation on the Behaviour of Children." Presented at the East African Social Science Council Conference, Nairobi, December, 1969.

"Effects of Modernization on Socialisation." Presented at Annual Meeting of the Society for Cross Cultural Research. Boston, Massachusetts, 1974.

Welbourne H. "Customs and Child Health in Buganda. 2 Methods of Child Rearing", Journal of Tropical Medicine, 1963, 15 pp. 124 - 133.

Wood Susan and Bales R.F.: Family Socialisation and Interaction Process. (N.Y. The Free Press of Glencoe 1955).

AFRICAN TRADITIONAL FORMS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION PAPER FOR THE THIRD INTENSIVE WORKSHOP OF THE AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION (ACO)

Mrs. A. Sibeso Mweene
Former National Co-Ordinator of the Zambia Pre-School Association

At the very outset I wish to warn that this paper may not do justice to such a wide subject as this in the absence of data and cases from other African Countries. The limited time for the assignment made it difficult for me to collect the necessary materials from other countries and even from Zambia.

I therefore decided to confine my paper to experience and professional knowledge I obtained in Zambia and from African Colleagues with whom I shared interest in early childhood education. I have no doubt that the traditional forms of early childhood education prevailing in Zambia can be extrapolated to other African countries as "Africa is Africa".

In Africa children are very important; in fact marriage centres very much on the child. A childless marriage is never by choice. As the child is the centre of the African society, it is the duty of every parent, community and society to offer education to its child. For the purposes of this paper, I will confine myself to early childhood education offered in an African society and talk only very briefly about an older child up to the age of eleven or twelve.

Before Child Birth

In an African society a girl at maturity is isolated and given some education relating to adult life and the expectations thereof. She is also taught and told many matters relating to motherhood and child rearing.

It is this education which helps the African girl to look after herself properly while pregnant so that she gives birth to healthy baby. Usually, after giving birth mother and baby are looked after by a grandfather or an aunt or any other elderly female relative usually away from her husband. The mother is shown how to feed, bath the baby and generally care for it. Usually this knowledge and practical experience have already been gained earlier through assisting her own mother by caring for younger brothers and sisters.

Fostering Physical and Language Development

From the time the child is born it is washed in water in which special roots and leaves have been soaked for some time. This is for protection of the baby against evil spirits and for making it physically strong. Immediately the umbilical cord

drops the mother and any other person who holds the baby does not only admire it but throws it gently up and down between her hands and above the lap. Usually this is accompanied by some singing. (An African baby of three months will automatically begin jumping up and down whenever she is held).

After every bath and after every sleep or nap the baby is put on the lap and her body is given exercises. Usually the baby lies on its tummy and on its mother's lap and has its legs, hands, arms, neck and head stretched and turned around while special oil is rubbed on its body.

The African mother does heavy physical work, for example: chopping-up firewood, drawing water, digging etc., with her baby at her back. While the mother does all this the baby is not still; it is also moving about according to the movements produced by the mother as she does her work.

An African baby of about four months is, while held at the hands, taught to walk. A song of encouragement is usually sung to the baby while it is trying to walk. Usually this exercise is done when the baby is in a good mood and therefore it is a pleasure to the baby to walk. The baby's face is full of excitement and pleasure.

Singing and dancing is an important part of an African's life. Nothing is more charming than to watch little boys and girls trying to dance like their elders. Families, particulary mothers, amuse themselves by trying to teach tiny tots who are barely able to maintain an upright-posture even for five minutes. Infants respond with every sign of pleasure to such stimulus and by the age of three they have learnt, in a sketchy and diagromnetic but specifically recognisable way, how to dance. The six year old child can even join the dancing of adolescents. His sense of rythm is accurate, he learns the song quickly and he has the pattern of dance early in mind. He goes on learning from his parents, elder sisters and the neighbours. The African mother is happy to see her child acquiring a dancing ability for she knows very well that physical fitness has to come first for her child.

An African child is encouraged at a tender age to share in the occupations of his father or her mother. Almost as soon as she can walk the girl begins to carry a receptacle by balancing it upon her head; and very soon she will come back with her mother from the river or water-well bearing her little water pot in this manner. This induces strong muscles and an upright posture. We can therefore see that an African child's physical development begins to be fostered at a very early stage; in fact immediately after birth.

Language

There is no baby-talk in an African home. Parents talk to their children as if they expected the children to understand normal adult speech.

An African mother finds time to talk "with" her baby. It can be on her way to fetching water or while she is digging in her field as the baby is safely on her back. She find it important to sit face to face with her baby and talk; usually this is done during the baby's bath time. When the baby talks in its murmuring way the mother or any other person in the household will reply and talk with the baby. It is not acceptable to let the baby talk alone.

African mothers sing a lot to their babies. They have special songs for each baby's cry. For example: a baby who wants to be attended to while the mother is still very busy and it is not very convenient for her to handle the baby at that minute will be told in a song that she will be coming in a minute. Sometimes a little girl of about ten is left to look after her baby sister while the mother is at the fields. These little girls know the songs to sing for the baby. In the song the baby is told that her mother will soon come; she has gone to the fields.

It is common in an African home to hear a baby of about six months murmur a tune usually sung to her by her mother. While the baby "sings" she is joined by her mother or older children. In an African home babies of just one year old are sent to bring things. For example: a mother can say to her baby daughter: "Mwangala, go and bring me some water from your father's hut". Sometimes Mwangala would bring something else but she will be assisted so that she brings the water. The mother will make clear what she asks Mwangala to do. It is amusing to see Mwangala drinking or spilling most of the water on her way to her mother. On receiving the water, the mother will say thank you and perform the traditional way of saying thank you.

In an African traditional home it is part of the custom to eat meals early enough so that parents or/and grandparents have time to talk and tell stories to their children. (Late meals do not make children healthy as it is believed that at such times ghosts are present. Folk stories, first and foremost, are told for entertainment. They are, in their own right, a counterpart of our modern story books or novels. African children are similar to European children; they dearly love a story before going to bed. African tales are highly educative.

Our educationists e.g. Piaget, divide the life of the young person into periods, and say that each period demands a particular set of tales. From three to six, the child dwells in a realm of realism, is interested in familiar things. From six to eight the child passes through a stage when the imagination is very active, and he craves fanciful tales that picture a larger experience than he has attained. Then he passes into another realm of realism. And from twelve or thirteen onwards he wants stories of a higher type of heroism, stories of chivalry, and romance.

Similary, I believe, an African child passes through these consecutive stages in the same way. And Africans have tales that fall into all the categories named, and the tales are graded in the telling so as to be appropriate to the psychological growth of the young person. Stories of the clever hare are always told to children of three years to six.

We can see that the evening fire with African children around it listening to tales is a school of language. We have no books for grammar or formal instruction of language in the villages, yet our children in these villages rapidly learn to talk with fluency and accuracy. They learn by the natural method of listening and imitating. We can see that tales play a very essential part. Like European children, African children do not object to a story being repeated; but they like it told in the same words. Forms of expression are heard over and over again, until they become thoroughly familiar. Other people wonder that African children have such extensive vocabularies - but they cease to wonder when they realise the kind of tales they hear and how they are told.

Development of the Child for Society Life

An African child learns not only from his parents but even more by using ears and eyes to observe what goes on around him. Parents assist as much as possible in this. Children are not isolated from the activities of their elders. The child sees how mother and father, elder brothers and sisters behave towards each other; and through this observation he comes to know how he is expected to behave. In one way or another, the child acquires the proper attitudes towards those who are in a position of authority over him. This is perhaps the most important thing he learns, for upon these patterns he will mould his behaviour to others when he leaves the family group for a larger circle.

The respect he has learnt for his mother's and sister's sex will be extended to those women whom he comes to address as "My mother" or regard as his sister. The reverence for his father will in due course be extended to his uncles, elders and chiefs of the whole tribe.

As early as three or four he can discriminate kinfolk from others; by the time he is six he knows the correct term of address and behaviour; by the time he is eleven or twelve he has mastered the whole complicated system. He has learnt how to address the people he meets, and those not so related.

He has also learnt the proper behaviour due to each one. If he does not behave as he should there is trouble for him, as any misbehaviour will reflect his parents' failures in bringing the child up.

Although the family group continues to govern the African's conduct long after he has ceased to be a child, when he is able to walk and talk he is brought gradually into association with other groups which influence him his "social space" becomes enlarged. The educational agencies to which he is subjected become more numerous and more diverse and his experiences more variegated as he participates in an ever increasing range of social institutions. He learns much from his youthful companions who are slightly more experienced than himself. The child, as mentioned above, is not isolated from adult life flowing around him, yet has a world of his own into which he enters joyfully whenever he can escape from the tasks imposed upon him by his elders: a world in which distinction of age and rank are recognised, and in which strong character early shows itself in leadership.

Boys and girls are introduced early into the economic life of the community. They acquire various skills, not in the classroom way, but by actual doing. They learn and participate in actual skills.

Children of both sexes at the age of five or six are set to herd goats or calves in the vicinity of the village. At about ten the boy may be promoted to accompany the cattle herds and at certain seasons this may involve absence from home for several months. He learns to manage the beasts, to distinguish grasses, nutritious and noxious, to recognise the symptoms of cattle disease, and to doctor wounds. While doing all this he is acquiring a great amount of miscellaneous knowledge. He comes to have extensive acquaintance with names and habits of animals and insects, with the names and uses of plants and trees.

The accuracy with which African children learn to count (even in twos, fives and tens) is also noteworthy; they begin early, by means of seeds, stones, etc., to know numbers. The Lozi people of Zambia have names for one up to a million.

Similary the girls are brought at a tender age to share in the occupations of their mothers, she learns by her mother's example and encouragement all there is to know about the production and preparation of food.

Young girls of eight or so already cook all the common dishes. Parents encourage their children to play in the vicinity of the village. Here they build themselves houses and have mock marriages. It is amusing to watch children playing roles of their parents and their society. From watching these children one sees how children are brought into close association with their elders and consciously or unconsciously mould their lives after the elders' pattern.

Among the Lozi people boys are taught at a very early age to handle canoes and to paddle with agility, grace and accuracy. The Zairean father will give his son a toy paddle and teach him to backwater, to steer, to move in with unison with others. He teaches him to make fish traps and nets;

the best places to put them and how to bait and cast the hook. Boys of eight or less know the names of innumerable fish in the streams, their habits and the best ways of catching them. Boys also are initiated early in the art of hunting. My own father used to go hunting with my elder brothers at the ages of seven and nine. He taught them how to track various animals.

Furthermore, he taught them what spears to use for various purposes; the ways of skinning and cutting up; and all magical and religious practices peculiar to the hunter. Among the all people of Zambia it is still a common practice, when a lion has been mortally wounded near a village, to bring small boys near, put spears into their hands and make them lunge at the beast before life is extinct. In this way an Ila boy is brought up to face the fiercest beasts without fear at an early age.

Self Discipline

An African five year old child is impressively self-disciplined already. African life has many taboos and a five year old child would not eat something which is taboo even in the absence of those who know it is taboo. This sort of thing may appear to be merely silly to other people as no explanations (in some cases) are given as to what would happen if the taboo is not obeyed; but it is all part and parcel of the excellent discipline to which the young Africans are subjected.

Toys and Play Material

An African will see to it that her young daughter has a special small hoe and she has her own little field near hers. While in the field with her daughter, the mother discusses and shows her daughter many things relating to the producing of crops.

In the home it is common to see few household effects specially for young children. For example, water and cooking pots etc. African children find time to play with their toys - usually behind the house or under a tree. They create their own dolls and dress them up. In the absence of clay and other material they find substitute ones e.g. cob-dolls instead of clay dolls.

Boys make a lot of things for their own play. They create canoes, different types of animals and other things. Even a child who lives in town still imitates a lot from a traditionally brought up child; but a town child has a lot of scrap material to create with; but extremely disadvantaged in many ways.

Games

African children have a lot of games - all embrace all aspects of the child's development.

Most games for children in Africa are played by a group of children and it is amazing to see how demanding these games are in terms of rules. Children have to discipline themselves in order to have these games played.

Certain games are specifically for the development of large muscles, for example ng'oma among the Lozi children. Chiyate and Mulabalaba among Zambian children develop smal muscles. Chiyate particularly develops the co-ordination of hand and eye. And both games assist in acquiring the concept of mathematics. Both games involve counting, substraction and addition. There are also other interesting games like butongwe etc.

Many games in Zambia are accompanied by dancing and singing. All these are part and parcel of the early childhood education the African society gives to its children. What is noteworthy is that almost all the games and many other forms of play are not supervised but they are encouraged.

Before concluding this paper, I feel it is important to note that small African girls of about five or six weave a lot using grass. This develops the child's fingers and they learn a skill which is part and parcel of the African woman.

African women weave a lot; almost their household effects are baskets and mats. They also make their own pots from clay. Men make dishes from wood.

From what I have said you will agree, I am sure, that Africans do educate their children in fact they begin immediately after birth. But its limitations are obvious to us the so-called civilised people. There is no opening of the mind by means of books and pictures which modern homes and schools provide. But these deficiencies should not blind us to its values. What the African sets to do - namely, to prepare the new generation to take its place in the community and carry on the tribal tradition - he accomplishes with a considerable amount of success. It may be said that the education is conservative and not creative. Yes, it is conservative in design but we can see for ourselves that African culture is not static; there is movement in it, and change. But this disappoints me because Africans are now losing their identity.

REFERENCES

Knowing the African by Edwin W. Smith

TRAINING THE AFRICAN TEACHER FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Sylvia M. Savage,
Ministry of Education,
Sierra Leone

Introduction:

An eminent leader of a great nation once said that a child is:

> "A person who is going to sit where you are sitting and when you are gone, attend to those things which are important."

He went on to say that:

> "The fate of humanity lies in a child's hands."*

To ensure that the fate of humanity is in good hands, we as educators, particularly at the first level, should make sure that we construct a firm and solid foundation. We should mould the young minds entrusted to us in such a way that when the time comes for them to take the challenge and responsibility, they will be able to live up to our expectations.

This year is a very important year for the child. The United Nations Organisation has declared it the International Year of the Child, and is calling on the whole world to think seriously about the child and its rights. It expects attention to be focussed on how the child's life could be made interesting in a meaningful way. I do not believe it is the intention of the United Nations that we as adults explain to the child what his rights are, since children by themselves cannot enforce these rights. It expects us to make all adults aware of the rights which child should enjoy and to help teachers, parents, guardians and other adults of the community realise that they should not trample on nor neglect the children's rights.

These rights are many and varied but one which touches us as educators is the child's right to education.

The Government of Sierra Leone, like many other governments has been very conscious of its responsibility to protect and improve upon the rights of the child. At the

*Quotation from Abraham Lincoln. Taken from I.Y.C. Report (International Year of the Child) November, 1977.

beginning of this past academic year, our Government embarked upon the first stage of free primary education. It is hoped that this move would provide more children in Sierra Leone with opportunities to develop their latent talents.

Other Governments/Bodies have embarked upon projects to focus attention on the child in celebration of the International Year of the Child.

UNESCO, for example, has paid particular attention to the extension and improvement of pre-school education and hopes to carry out research in Africa and Latin America on the pre-school child.

Our sister nations on the West Coast have great plans for the improvement of education as part of their celebration. Some plan immediate revision of their educational policies while others plan their celebrations through traditional educational societies at village level. I suspect the emphasis on this aspect of their culture is because a large percentage of their school age children still cannot or do not take advantage of the formal educational system.

Everywhere there is evidence of a common concern for the young child. What then could be done to improve on the existing conditions to satisfy the child's needs and to fulfil his rights to education as to make him a useful citizen?

Education Patterns in Independent Africa

My task here today is to discuss the topic "Training the African Teacher for Early Childhood Education." Before doing that, I feel it will be in place to have a quick look at the existing educational patterns in independent Africa.

In colonial days, the type of education that was available in Africa was geared after the British and French patterns and produced black Englishmen and black Frenchmen. Indeed, that is not the type of education for any independent nation- any nation for that matter which wants to maintain its identity.

Educational records of many independent African nations have been quite impressive. Independent African Governments are prepared to and many in fact do spend a significant percentage of their national incomes on education. The UNESCO International Conference in Addis Ababa in 1961, strengthened their efforts in this regard. It was there that the resolution was made to establish six years universal compulsory and free education for all African children by 1980. This goal has been fully attained by some nations and partially by others. Still others have hopes that it could be done. They were enthusiastic about the idea and were also optimistic that development would come with education. At the same time, many realised that they do not have the resources to meet the rising social demands for more education.

The question whether the education available is the right type has given rise to great concern. Many African nations were anxious to speed up their development programmes, and since for them development has been synonymous with education, people would rather have their Government spend more on education than on health or any other social services. Some are even willing to make sacrifices to ensure that their children get some kind of education. The self-help project has caught fire in modern Africa. I understand that as it is in Sierra Leone, so it has been in Kenya where schools have been built through self-help or Harambee projects but physical structure does not guarantee a good education. There are other factors, namely trained teachers, adequate equipment and school materials, which are needed, yet these are lacking in many places. How then do we go about solving this problem of education for the masses?

Some foreign educationists think that African leaders have bitten more than they can chew. These have suggested a shift in emphasis, to concentration on primary and non-formal education. This, in my view, seems logical. The Sierra Leone Education Review has also recommended that. Today in my country, Community Education Centres are springing up in the rural areas. Children of primary school age, school dropouts and adult community members are receiving non-formal education for self sufficiency.

The most important task for African Educators, it seems to me, is to ensure that the type of education received is effective and appropriate; education that is relevant to the needs of the people.

The effectiveness of the education given is determined not only by its content. Hence, all the best available resources should be made use of, where teaching aids, public and school libraries are limited. The most important of the best available resources is the teacher. Therefore, to have a good quality education, we in Africa must depend on the teacher.

Remember, teaching is a profession and training is a pre-requisite for entering into it.

Qualities of the Teacher

A person entering the teaching profession must, in the first instance, be able to adapt herself to changing circumstances and be equipped with certain skills to enable her to acquire a lot of knowledge from her environment. It would be to her advantage, if, to begin with, she is self reliant and mature enough to withstand pressures. In our situation in Africa, where many parents and influencial community members are either semi-literate or altogether illiterate, these qualities would aid any prospective teacher to get along in the profession. She should be flexible enough to be involved with the community. She should not stand aloof and yet expect things to work well. An understanding of and identifying with the people in it would facilitate her work. Above all, she should be able to have a clear picture of why she has entered the profession. She should also have a clear indication of the national goals of her Government.

An effective teacher, should be able to understand the problems of her children and know how to deal with them in the classroom as well as in informal situations. In general, she should be able to:

- sustain the children's attention in class
- plan her lessons to suit individual needs and differences
- encourage maximum pupil participation during her lessons
- give clear cut directions
- use techniques that are thought provoking
- use stimulating episodes to begin and end her lessons.

Specifically, the African teacher in early childhood education must take into account, when planning her work:

The Children's Needs

(a) Unless the physical and social needs are adequately satisfied in a young child, he will not be able to sufficiently cope with situations in the normal classroom.

(b) The need for physical growth, mental coordination and also a sense of security with adults and his peers are desirable for learning.

(c) Teachers should realise that people with whom children interact during their early years influence their development to a great extent.

(d) The teacher in turn could help by making available opportunities for:-

- physical activities in and out doors
- group work for social development and
- should foster a good relationship with each child so he will feel secured in her presence.

The children's Interest - Young children are active and enjoy exploring their environment. Besides, they learn better when they are interested in the subject matter.

A good teacher should be aware of such qualities and create situations where the children will be able to move around and examine their world. If they are actively engaged, their interest will be sustained and the exercise productive. Interaction with their peers and their environment is by far better than the passive and isolated method which invariably is common in many of our schools.

The Language Ability of the Children - Normally, a young child's language is simple and straightforward. It is therefore difficult for him to understand long words and sentences with abstract ideas. Where instruction is not in the mother's tongue, opportunities for situational drills in language teaching would aid learning. Constant oral language will lead to fluency and correct usage. The language

needs and capabilities of the children should be considered in this regard. It is my firm conviction that intensive work in language at the early stages will aid mastery in this medium.

The Children's Environment - Most of our children begin with limited experiences of the world beyond their family circle, are not allowed to converse freely with adults and are exposed to very little or no reading materials. A good teacher will first of all build on the familiar experiences and gradually widen them to embrace areas outside the familiar situation. This way, the children's interest will be sustained and learning will come easily to them.

The Space and time allocated - Where limited classroom space is fast becoming the rule rather than the exception, the teacher of the young should be able to interact with her children in a way to get positive reaction from them and to utilise the limited time and space allocated to ensure their active participation. The setting should be such that she will always be there as a guide and, if there is a need, control the behaviour of the learners.

In short, the teacher in early childhood education must constantly evaluate his programme to ensure that the children are given enough opportunity for constant language practice and involvement in the environment to satisfy their curiosity. He must also ensure that the children's interest is considered when lessons are planned and that they enjoy the type of relationship which will make them feel happy and secure in school.

The Training Programme

Training should provide the skills of teaching children to think for themselves. Setting interesting and useful problem solving situations to provoke thought should be included in the programme. It should be impressed on the trainees that, thinking should be purposeful and goal directed. It should involve an analysis of problematic situations during which concepts learned should be used. Concepts cannot be transferred from teacher to pupil. Children acquire concepts through learning situations coupled with guided experiences. Lack of guidance will result in the formation of faulty concepts. Rote learning, for example, comes as a result of transferring of concepts.

Long ago, the emphasis in education was on the content. Today, that emphasis has shifted and the child is given the spotlight. This is the essence of child-centred education. It deals with the learning process. I consider child-centred education effective but must warn here that the teacher involved in it must be 'au fait' with her facts, since she will need to guide the children as she cannot give what she doesn't have.

The practical aspect should aim at preparing the students for actual teaching experience. It should be done in a formal as well as informal setting that is, in school and non-school situations. For a successful programme, integrated practical experiences should be provided to complement the theoretical studies.

The purpose of fieldwork is to promote opportunities for students to be actually involved in teaching under the supervision of experienced teachers. This exercise is in accordance with a sound educational theory which advocates learning by doing. The programme should aim at providing opportunities for the students to experiment with various teaching methods to know and understand children and to develop the skills to teach and care for them. It should also enable them to observe and be in a position to discuss and analyse a wide range of children's activities. Students should also observe children's behaviour and apply knowledge of course work for better understanding.

Because of my interest in Early Childhood Education, I requested visits to Teachers Colleges during my brief stay in Australia. My purpose was to observe and see how we on this side of the globe fit in with current trends in education.

I was impressed particularly with a small college which specialises in the training of teachers in Early Childhood Education. This institution has three parts to its practical programme:

(a) school visits

(b) block practice

(c) continuous practice.

During school visits, students are expected to observe children in class and informal situations. The behaviour of the children is analysed using the theories that have been studied in class. The students are also expected to visit other o organised children activities and make contact with different people concerned and interested in children's work.

Block practice is the kind that many of us experienced during our training period. It gives an opportunity to students to become fully integrated in a class for a given period of time, so as to gain a better understanding of children and their activities. Here the experiences is sequential and students have a chance to learn from their mistakes.

Where possible, at some point in the practice, two students at different stages of the course are assigned to do team teaching. The motive behind this, I was informed, is to expose the students to peer teaching. Students learn from one another. Such exposure will make them realise that the

children themselves learn from each other. Team teaching also helps students to plan their work together and share their experiences. During such exercises, they should try to complement or criticise each other's work constructively. The sharing of ideas etc., provides an avenue for the students to contribute their experiences towards creating better classrooms than what they found initially. If team teaching is properly done, it should contribute meaningfully to the learning in the room and the result will be richer for the teachers and children.

Continuous practice, the third item on the programme, is undertaken by the students one day a week throughout the period of course work. It gives students an opportunity to put what they have learned into practice week by week rather than wait for the block period when, perhaps, important ideas would have been forgotten. During continuous practice special attention should be given to the students development of skills as they go along.

This type of set-up for me, does not seem bad at all. Perhaps it is worth considering in our situation, but of course with some modification to meet our individual national needs.

The Curriculum

The curriculum is an integral part of any training programme. A good curriculum must have a definite goal and reflect the environment in which the education takes place. Its objectives should be dynamic and be based on the society and the needs of the child in it. It must be flexible and provide for the essential growth to meet its objectives. The aims and objectives in it should be a determining factor of its content. It should relate to the level, aptitude and interest of the learner.

To prove its effectiveness, there should be constant evaluation for the purpose of determining the extent to which the educational process is meeting the stated goals.

It is common knowledge, that the former curriculum prescribed during the colonial era falls short of meeting the needs of the children it served. The curriculum in independent Africa should be reorganised to meet the needs if the children and should be interesting and relevant.

The curriculum designed for Early Childhood Education could cover two areas:

(a) Pre-Service training

(b) In-Service training.

Africa, unfortunately cannot boast of maximum population at secondary school level. Where training facilities are limited and the quality of people opting for teaching in primary schools poor, concessions could be made whereby secondary

school dropouts as well as secondary school graduates could be qualified for training in Early Childhood Education.

That being the case, I would suggest two categories of students in the Pre-Service training programme.

Level A Students completing secondary education and have attempted the School Leaving Examination.

Level B Students completing secondary education and have passed the School Leaving Examination.

The approach to the course should be practical for the most part and the ideas developed be such, that teachers could be made to think of the aims of education in relation to development.

Content

Section A. General (For both levels A & B).
Objective: To develop in students

- self-reliance
- individual study habits
- self-evaluation

Academic Courses

1. History of Education - a brief examination of educational policies in the specific countries.
2. Social Background to Education - a study of society and Education. First in the specific country, then in other African nations.
3. Basic Course in Philosophy of Education - study of Educational ideas. Brief study of great educators in the ancient and modern world.
4. Basic Principles of Education - an outline study
5. Child Development - study of human development and behavioral patterns in children.

Section B. Early Childhood Education (For levels A & B).

Objective: To aid students to:

- relate the academic aspect with the professional
- gain an insight into the child's method of thinking in relation to subject areas
- put into practice, the theories learned.

Professional Courses

1st Year

1. History of Early Childhood Education. Introduction of development of Early Childhood Education in the country. Comparative study of other parts of Africa.

2. Method of teaching in Early Childhood Education. Examination of play way, activity method, integrated day - the pros and how best they suit the society they are meant for.

3. Observation in school - School setting, classroom arrangements, methods etc.

4. Detailed study of language development, visual discrimination, auditory discrimination and Reading Readiness.

5. Study of children's Cultural and Creative Art.

2nd Year

1. Classroom Administration - role of teacher. Pupil participation.

2. Adapting/developing materials for use in the classroom.

3. The Importance of language.

4. School observation and child study 1 day a week for 1 term.

5. School Administration - study of duties of managers, Ministry Officials, headteacher and teachers.

6. School practice - 1 day a week for 1 term.

7. Study of school Records - Syllabus scheme of work, etc.

8. Evaluation in the classroom.

3rd Year

1. General methodology - Teaching of subject areas Methods appropriate to subjects - e.g. project method, discovery method, integrated/ thematic approach etc. Religious and moral Instruction should be included.

2. Final school Practice - Block Practice 8 - 10 weeks. (Peer teaching if possible).

3. The study of the school and the Community - Community involvement in Education.

4. Parent Teacher Relationship - Functions of P.T.A. School Health and Welfare matter.

Section 3 for level B only

Objective: To develop competence in the student in subject areas.

1. The Teaching of the Language Arts.
2. The Teaching of Maths
3. The Teaching of Science
4. The Teaching of Social Studies
5. The Teaching of Cultural and Creative Arts.
6. The Teaching of Children with special abilities, learning difficulties or disabilities.

At the end of the course, level B students are expected to do a comprehensive study in the area of their choice.

In-Service Training

In many if not all the nations in Africa, there are more untrained and unqualified than qualified and trained teachers. In-Service training is therefore necessary for teachers in the service.

In Sierra Leone, a system has been devised whereby untrained and unqualified teachers will be awarded the Teachers Certificate after attending courses over a period of five years.

The In-Service Training aims at:

- giving participants a general course in Education - formal and informal
- Identifying materials appropriate for teaching and learning.
- Enabling participants to gain confidence and obtain the needed skills in the various subject areas.

Duration of the Course

8 weeks per year (2 weeks during Christmas and Easter holidays and 4 during the long holidays).

Refresher courses, workshops and seminars are needed to help teachers in the service to keep up with modern trends.

The Method of training Teachers

Industrialised societies have a number of mechanised methods of training teachers. The tape recorders, video-tape and other teaching machines are examples of such devices.

I will not be taking a realistic view if I attempt to suggest any of these devices. Rather, I would suggest that in the situation in which many of us find ourselves, we adopt the methods of:

Observation where children, classrooms, organisation and teaching methods can be seen in the real situation.

Role-Playing. Where the students act out roles assigned in conditions described by the teacher. This could bring in a situation involving school administrators, parents, community workers etc. Students could also use this method for a better understanding of learning through play

Activity method
Integrated Day

Simulation. A means whereby the student could be introduced to the real classroom situation and have a feel of it. This approach enables students to think constructively and could be used in the form of games.

Team Teaching. Helps students to plan and work together, share their experiences and evaluate each other's work.

Use of Module - Simple self instructional materials where one concept is taught and method of evaluation for self assessment.

Materials

I have considered the training programme, the curriculum and methods of training teachers for Early Childhood Education. The whole programme will be incomplete without the materials with which to work.

Much difficulty is encountered in getting materials that are appropriate for use at the base in African Schools. Many of the available materials, have certain foreign concepts and our children find it hard to understand unfamiliar things and situations. Learning cannot take place unless what is learned is understood. Teachers will have to rely on local resources for materials. Materials in the environment could be used to make appropriate teaching aids. All that needs to be done is for teachers to be rightly motivated to produce relevant and useful materials. If teachers cannot produce materials, I suggest that some of the available foreign materials be adapted to make them meaningful and relevant.

Evaluation

Assessing the students at the end of training is as important as it is essential, for a lot of premium is put on paper qualification in many of our countries. There is nothing wrong with certificates or diplomas. My concern is whether the best students are always the qualified ones.

I feel that continuous assessment is more reliable in our situation. That I believe will give a better profit of the student at the end of training than the traditional examination we are used to.

For this type of assessment I suggest short essays on topics in sections A and B:

School visit reports
child study reports

Essay or selective professional courses in Section C.

Assessment on teaching practice

Individual projects e.g. child development patterns in selected communities.

Conclusion

As I stand here, I recall a familiar New Testament Biblical Story. It goes like this:

Some fishermen were fishing all night and caught nothing. They had been to the deepest section of the lake, the area noted to be teeming with fish and still they caught nothing. Rather disappointed, they pulled their boat to shore where their Master was waiting.

"Did you catch anything?" The Master asked.

"No" they replied "We have been fishing all night and have been to the deepest part and still have not had anything"

"Cast your net where you are and you shall find" The Master commanded.

They obeyed and caught fish. Lots of fish, more than they could carry in the boat.

This is exactly what is happening to us in Africa. We go all over looking for help when the help we need is right under our feet.

We may not be self sufficient, but indeed we are not inefficient. The resources are available, material as well as human resources. What needs to be done is to identify the available resources and in this case people fit for the teaching profession and train them to make them produce children who are true Africans.

Potential teachers can be motivated to produce materials, local materials, materials which are relevant, interesting and satisfying to the child. Not everybody has the ability to produce but what is already produced could be adapted to suit our needs. Many foreign children's stories could be adapted.

Even the popular nursery rhymes could also be adapted to be fully understood by children. Learning and understanding are reciprocal. Students learn what they understand and when they understand they react. Young people like action so learning should be an active process. In order for it to be active, there should be abundant materials to motivate the students.

Africa is a very rich continent both in material and human resources. Let us use what we have, work hard and cast our nets right where we are for we shall find.

AFRICAN POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC REALITIES IMPLICATIONS FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION (WITH ILLUSTRATIVE CASE STUDIES).

Dr. A.N. Boma
I.P.A.R.-Buea,
Cameroon.

The theme of this paper or rather the topic for discussion seems more controversal than the presentation itself because there is, in my opinion, limited codified or documented evidence of the political and economic realities of the African child. Many writers have attempted to generalize about African politics, extending to the limit of describing it as an association of "secret societies". Perhaps such misconceptions are formulated because of the inability of such individuals to penetrate the systems.

The two considerations when talking about African politics that must be kept in mind are

(a) African politics are very complex

(b) African politics are very dynamic

Aside from the fact that the political scene is ever-changing both in structure and philosophy, it is also evolving into systems which are "African" and peculiar to each country and its needs. For example:

Nyerere's Tanzania	- Ujamaa Concept
Late Kenyatta's Kenya	- Uhuru
Kaunda's Zambia	- Humanism
Ahidjo's Cameroon	- Peaceful reliant development

African politics no longer fits the mould that the colonial masters and Western political scientists envisaged for them. They can no longer control as stringently as they did in colonial days. Now the control is rather clandestine politics and policies which are manupulated and controlled by under-cover elements, economics and aid.

On the other hand, the social systems in Africa vary from village to village and sometimes between families because of successive linealities. However, the traditional political systems that were once so strong in the villages and regions and were not only the political, social and economic control, but also the law enforcement agent, have now become de-emphasized.

It is a fact that the child encounters this system first, even before he goes to school, but the importance and the force of these traditional controls is not so strong not emphasized forcefully by the parents and adults of the society.

To talk of the African child being educated in the political and social realities would simply imply coming to terms with what is evidently true in the writer's known situations. There is no epoch making in trying to cogitate on the subject, rather the presentation is aimed at stimulating the reader or the audience into answering certain questions which appear relevant to us as curriculum developers.

The African child is constantly being influenced by the social and political circumstances prevailing in any given environment. These circumstances generate the types of transactions in which he or she could be actively engaged. What then influences behaviourial changes in the child? This can be referred to as his or her personal esteem, his parental upward social mobility, his physical and biological environment. "Beyond this basic unity of mankind, however, different environments also produce differences in behaviour, not in the basic mechanisms themselves but in the way they are applied in particular situations".[1]

I would like to, at this juncture, present a simple diagrammatic representation in the hope that it will capsulize the topic under discussion. The following diagram represents the economic and political influences on a child. Today we must come to terms with the educational implications behind these influences. The lists are by no means exhaustive.

---

[1]Marian E. Addy, et al., "The Child in the African Environment".

ECONOMIC

Agriculture
Farming activities
Community development
Subsistence farming
Markets
Cooperatives
Credit Unions
Banks-savings
Taxes
Inflation
Employment
Social Security
Labour code
Cost of living
Petrol Boom
Notions of: corruption
savings
cooperation
dignity
capitalism
socialism
Technology
Industry

POLITICAL

Individual right
Individual/group involvement in development
Values, creeds
National Identity
National Pride
Elections
Chiefdoms
Elders
Politicians
Societies
Civilian/Military Rule
Law Enforcement Agents (Gendarmes, Police, etc.)
Taxes
Judiciary
Party Groups
National Day Celebration
Decrees
Notions of: corruption, nepotism
bribery
socialism
capitalism
Ethnic Grouping
Language Rights

A few questions become evident in attempting to address the paper to the topic assigned and in turn to the above diagram. These questions and the descriptions and answers will attempt to provide food for thought as far as curriculum developers are brought into focus with the problems:

- Is there a link between these influences on the child and his formal schooling?

- Should there be a link?

- Is the school an agent of the community and country in imbibing in the children national values, in promoting national policies, in promoting national figures, in perpetuating national programmes?

- Does the school programme have a role to play in the economic development of the country, aside from producing manpower?

- Should the output of the primary school system reflect the objective of turning out individuals who can readily and immediately function in the society?

(a) Economically

(i) has the child acquired attitudes that will permit him to stay in the village, farm and appreciate as well as utilize the concept of the dignity of manual labour?

(ii) has the child acquired basic skills which will equip him to set up his firm, a small industry, a poultry farm, a small business, etc.?

(iii) does the child's education equip him to function in an agrarian society; as well as prepare him for higher education and a more urban style of life?

(b) Politically

(i) does the child realize that he has a responsibility to his society? (e.g. human investment week ... must help clean up)

(ii) does the child realize that he is part and parcel of the betterment of his country?

(iii) does the child know that elected and appointed representatives of the government are in their position to help him and not for their own good?

(iv) does the child view the law enforcement agency as the protector of his rights?

(v) does the child realize that in time he himself can effect change in his society?

(vi) does the school system imbibe and inculate in the child traditional values that reflect a national identity? (not so with the old colonial school system where the school alienated the child from his society and prepared him intellectually and in his value judgement for a Western type of life).

If we answer yes to all the above, then is the school becoming a vehicle of the state? Is that bad? If we are not certain what to answer, then perhaps we as constructors of curricula should stick to this basics, the 3 R's and let the society would the child in whatever way they see fit. However, as we in Africa, have accepted the trend towards an integrated school curriculum which wholly embraces the total environment, we must carefully examine our total objectives.

To place the above questions in a perspective which we can examine in detail, I have chosen the United Republic of Cameroon for my illustrative case study. From the examples and explanations which I have drawn, we can form a basis for a thought provocating discussion and come to grips with these very vital questions.

Economic Implications

Is The Child Being Equipped to Sustain Himself/Herself?

Although economic realities have been a powerful force in shaping the advancing pace of African national development, remarkably little is yet documented whereby such developmental processes as generated can be brought into effective use. Each family has its own economic milieu and values which can be traced back into what the family believes to be its economic sustainance. The early years of a child in the Cameroon being plunged into the economic set-up of the family are essentially unique in that activities pursued are chiefly related to the financial basis of the family. For example a child raised from a background of livestock husbandry will initially be involved in livestock education or apprenticeship, whereas one raised on a coffee or cocoa farm will also imbibe the essentials of meeting such economic enterprises. Within the family set-up of the civil service the child will seek education as a vehicle for gaining occupational status in the civil service and sometimes rather inexplicably will wish to take a similar profession like that of the parents.

However with the growing realisation of the importance of the Western form of education (formal schooling), the life of the child is shaped to appreciate Western values and is thus reasonably regularized to offer opportunities for gainful employment roughly proportionate to the highest echelon of education reached.

Whereas the family offers the child practical educational economic possibilities, the formal educational system offers the child a range of descriminating possibilities which when properly guided reflect the increasing necessity of learning how to advance the economic base. The seeming randomness of the wide range of subjects offered to the child in the formal school system manifests the claim to vast occupational opportunities.

Is The Child Learning A Usable Skill?

In the non-formal educational system the child is learning usable skill as he is directly ploughed into the family occupational system. However this is only sustained as long as the family occupational system continues to be viable. Where it flops the child is thrown into askance because there is little attempt made to provide the child with the capacity for transfer of knowledge. This form of family ritual education may lead to establish a resistance to innovative behaviour patterns if this is not complimented with the formal education system. At the Institute for the Reform of Primary Education, Buea, there is an attempt to inject into the school curriculum programme in English language, Mathematics, Village Technology and Environmental Studies in which the children are exposed to the basic skills in a wide variety of arts and crafts as well as various farming techniques. For example basic Mathematics skills can be taught through an activity such as sorting maize or doing screwpine weaving.

Is He/She Conversant With Forming Techniques?

A significant environmental pressure on the Cameroon child consists of changes in attitudinal behaviour. In order to make him or her develop knowledge in formation techniques which can later be transferred into the development of local commodities the formal education system tries to meet the formation concepts through some game activities and collection of local resource materials. The child exercises a kind of competition in creativity which will later enhance his productivity. There are no economic rewards attached to these activities except for the fact that children see their activities as inherently interesting and attractive. Minimum production cost appear to be the overriding factor in these activities e.g. children use clay for modelling various forms and shapes, waste paper to produce hats, kites and collecting scrap rubber for making tennis balls. To this effect their formation is worked backwards from a terminal profile to deduce what children of a certain age group and capacity can do. Therefore a succession of inter-related activities is envisaged and carried out through each successive year in school.

Is He/She Learning How to Learn?

The transfer ability and aptitudes which start off through game activities are later transformed into productive work. The children learn on the job either through formal or non-formal education systems. As a consequence of accumulated experiences the results of the children's work become increasingly accurate. As the children collect material for recreational or productive work they gradually learn managerial decisions and objectivity in the collection and utilization of the resource materials. The primary school farm project in the Cameroon is aimed at developing these basic abilities and skills in child formation. It is expected that the school farms provide the less expensive basis for future scientific research attitudes. "They help make children 'enquiry-minded', encouraging them to observe, to record, to ask questions, to be aware of what needs to be done and how they can do it. In this way active and helpful citizens develop"[1].

During the activities such as harvesting of maize and other crops in the school farm actual yields are compared with earlier expectations so that significant deviations can be used as a basis for improving future crop performances. The heavy emphasis on traditional versus modernized farming techniques and crop compatibility patterns offer simplicity and rationality in the use of the farm as outdoor laboratories for research work.

---

[1] Audrey Aarons, Hugh Hawes, Juliet Gayton, Child-to-Child (Macmillan Press) P.17

Is He/She Learning How to Adapt?

With reliance on relatively simple notions of "low cost, no cost", the children are gradully brought into understanding adopting and adapting these notions in any given environmental setting. Elements of environmental beautification and conservation are promoted through these notions, e.g. the recycling of decomposable waste such as waste paper, grass from compounds and the use of empty can for flower vases and for potting of plants. The integration of agricultural activities of the school and those of a given community are seen as ways of ensuring that children see the need and the capacity to adapt to any given agricultural activity in the community.

Through the Parent-Teacher Association (P.T.A.) and the school of collective promotion, members make it possible for parents, students and teachers to choose activities in which development will eventuate. Children are therefore not alienated from their environment but are made to adapt to it. They are consistently adapting to economic changes through self-help notions inculcated in them, e.g. when they join to clean a water point or construct a pit latrine.

Are Programmes Geared to Meet the Needs of the Country?

The programmes designed in the formal school system are expected to meet social ends and economically-concious pursuits. These programmes display the national bent to familiarize the children with occupational possibilities in the urban and rural sectors. The agricultural programmes, the President's generous prize for manual work, and the arts/craft and technology programmes in the schools can be acknowledged to open up the children's horizon for participation in societal economic activities. Schools are gradually repaying loans which were granted to them under the PAR school farm project. Application for loans are being received from other schools. Recognising the fact that this programme yields a significant impact, it cannot otherwise be doubted that the programme inspires discrete decisions assumed under sound planning. These practical models rest upon reliable modes of operation.

Political Realities

It seems appropriate to think that our educational system should place our children in political circumstances conducive to self and societal development. These circumstances lie behind not only small and routine exaltations, but question our thinking as to what best we can see as political educational system; and if our children, at what cost and for how long?

As said in the opening statement of this paper there is not "The African Politics" because our knowledge of it does not conform to any of the known Western types. Since we are not sure of the type we are even less so sure of what configuration to expect. In the non-formal educational system our politics must only be seen as the social basis of survival. Children are hardly ever called upon to be involved in social or political issues which involve decision making. This is the sole prerogative of the elderly persons. Quite often, especially in rural Cameroon, children have to be seen and not heard. The formal school system grows away from this traditional ritual. How wrong is it to teach children to take care of themselves instead of allowing them some opportunity to take care of us?

In the Cameroon, civics education can be contrived to mean political education. This type of education provides a general framework within which the initiation of the children is placed. The children are not plunged into any political ideology. During national days children are conducted to through march pasts and sometimes they wear party uniforms. This is meant to illustrate an attitude for party support and national unity. They sing the National Anthem and turn their faces to the Cameroon flag. To them these activities are exciting and impressive.

Is the Child Being Equipped to Gather Information

The present educational system does not promote the gathering of information by children. Rather they are on the listening end for whatever the teacher considers as worthy of knowing. Perhaps the rejection for children gathering information stems from the fact that they are handicapped by the language of expression since French and English are the two official languages in Cameroon.

I find that when the local languages are employed then there could be the possibility of children participating in information gathering activities. However when programmes of social studies become curricula subject and the language of communication at the primary school becomes localized, then children could be expected to gather information. In this instance the prospect for developing local languages for the future is being examined. Another consideration is the availability of resources for gathering information. Libraries, resource books, magazines, publications, etc., are in a very limited supply in the schools, if they exist at all. With the increasing number of African publications and publishers, this situation should improve. The time for an 'Encyclopedia Africana' is very ripe!

Is He/She Learning How to Differentiate?

Since life is infinitely additive and variable, children are gradually brought into focus through differentiating among the various hierarchies of persons in the community. They know important village personnel as well as those in the political set up. They see these exciting images during national day celebrations and village festivals.

Is the System Allowing Him/Her to have his Rights?

The system makes it possible for educational planners including parents to provide children the right to education. In the Cameroon, primary education is free in the Government institutions, but not compulsory. Mission schools, otherwise known as voluntary agency schools, collect meagre school fees thus granting pupils a right to education. The planners propose objectives which provide children free access to primary education while there is a purposeful design by the school system to educate children. Children very often learn through parental association and sometimes intuitively. The society also dictates the patterns of their lives. Some schools and homes have radios and children's informance level is improved through listening to such media.

In a system where value hierarchy dominates, children have very little right to question political decisions because societal adults claim reasonableness in the decisions they take which influence the lives of the children. These decisions ensure civil rights, social security, educational rights, peace and national unity. The legitimation of dissent cannot be tolerated from children since they have not attained intellectual maturity to be able to participate effectively in political decisions. They however form a wing of the political set-up in the Cameroon known as Youth of Cameroon National Union (YCNU).

On the other hand the formal school system tries to ensure that children are kept informed of current political trends and changes as well as accept a complex inter-play of cultures; the latter through traditional dances, Western sports and games, songs and plays.

Are Children's Individual Capacity Catered For;

The basic input of the Government that takes care of the physical and mental capabilities of children lies in the various institutions established for the education of handicapped children and on the examination system which is used as a shifting mechanism for the gifted and retarded children. This sought of solution to cope with child inequality demonstrates government concern for feasibility of opportunities.

Educational Implications

It is quite clear that under certain limited circumstances the educational programmes in the Cameroon are aimed at meeting the political and economic realities of the nation. Inputs, finances, human and material resources are lacking to meet the growing demands of educational requirements.

There is need to understand the rights of the child as promulgated by the United Nations and to work towards achieving these rights. The question of the child's curriculum where he/she had to discover his/her own world should now be reconsidered in the light of economic and political changes constantly plaguing Africa. An affective child-centred curriculum has to be planned and implemented as an integrated component of any developmental activity thus ensuring that education promotes a harmonious and long time effect. For economic strategy this must initially be based on the dictum that health is wealth. The school system in the Cameroon ensures the health of the children through organised programmes of practical hygiene and sanitation. The work of cooperating agencies is enlisted, for example, vaccination against small pox, treatment of measles and epidemics, etc. Exercises in food and nutrition are undertaken in school and by the Department of Community Development for post-natal care. Every effort is made to promote self-reliance of the family in respect of the health of the children. In this respect the Minister of Health in the Cameroon had this to say: "The Government is conscious of the important place the children occupy in society. It believes strongly in the principle that health is the fundamental human right. And to guarantee this right, the Government has always retained mother and child health as one of its priorities in all its health plans".[1] The role of native doctors is not discounted in the health plan in the communities when where are no effective substitutional curative resources.

How The Child Learns And Spheres of Influences

Since the child learns through a structured or unstructured frame-work, curriculum experts should work towards utilizing these frame-works maximally. In the light of the interesting array of spheres of influences that shape the education of the child such as mother, baby nurse, sisters, brothers, siblings, extended family, adults, elders in the community, societies, native doctors, political parties, and agents of environmental media (transmitters of information) such as parents, brothers, sisters, elders, peer groups, radio, market etc. Curriculum developers should strive in shaping the framework within which the African child can be developed economically. These spheres of influences and media might be the subject of further research.

---

[1] Honourable Minister of Health - Cameroon Tribune - Wednesday April 11th, 1979. P.8.

In conclusion I would say that the education of the African child towards economic and political realities depends on human decisions and the onus lies on educators in general and curriculum developers in particular. It should then be known how the decisions are made, by whom, and on what basis and with what selection mechanisms.

Having received Dr. Obanya's observations, I decided this addendum is necessary to state what in my opinion is really happening in Africa. These statements are based on what I see in the Cameroon situation but may be considered in varying degrees or in broader perspective elsewhere, as well. Anything I might say is probably something all of you know even better than I. As I said this represents a series of personal observations, which I have updated or rewarded. This addendum consists of a conglomeration of my impressions and thoughts. There is no way of testing these observations to be sure whether they are true or even useful. However, I am proceeding on the assumption that these statements will enter into your thinking and thus provoke food for thought.

In talking about economic realities in Africa, the theme to which I am addressing this paper, I must say that the orientation of the African child is determined by his developmental needs and by his interaction in the family to which he is born. At about the age of four or five, he may be engaged in the free play of twisting a string round his finger, piling a few stones, or making things with clay. Such activities are largely of a pleasurable and self-gratifying nature. Within the family, he may be engaged in some directed activity, such as caring for the junior sister or brother, giving the mother some wood to poke into the fire, or piling harvested food into a basket. While this is not a gainful occupation in a monetary sense, the child is, in a way contributing to family labour. With both directed and non-directed activities, the child may engage in purposeful or worthwhile activity.

I like to disagree with the U.N. Charter establishing the International Year of the Child which precludes child labour. While it is recognised that this is a directive promulgated by people who are very much in sympathy with the needs and welfare of children throughout the world, this concept is clearly directed toward children in the industrialized countries. Children there cannot be exposed to hazards of mechanization. Their safety must be considered. They cannot be exposed to the dangers of electrical gadgets or mechanical wheels. In the African setting, these hazards do not generally exist in the field of child labour. Here children work under human controlled or supervised situations. The child is capable helping the family about the compound, roasting corn, making things with clay, etc.

The educational system in industrialized countries has been rather slow to recognize the occupational potentialities of children and to direct the curriculum towards training them for gainful employment. They have, seemingly adopted a system of economic imperialism in which the educational system is dominated by a labour code.

Political

The Child's ego-development which may, in turn, influence his future political development is not encouraged in the African home. He is constantly deprived of the medium of self-expression or of defending his rights. As a consequence he grows to accept many statements as facts without questioning them.

In terms of economic realities, the African system is inclined to give children more orientation in occupational pursuits since children are employed in productive family labour even though this is not personally or materially gainful to them. Some work may carry with it a degree of intellectual or physical rewards e.g. selling fruit, sugar cane, maize, groundnuts, or such commodities which entail some business acumen. A child born into a family that rears cattle, sheep, or goats has the physical satisfaction of tending the stock.

The International Year of the Child and its inhibition on child labour has little relevance in the African situation. The stipulation of an age at which a child can be gainfully employed is pertinent only for the industrialized countries.

The African child is brought up in an economic system where he enjoys sharing in family responsibilities. His physical development is accelerated by his exposure to manual work. It is only fair therefore that his school experiences encourage him to assume such responsibilities. The African school system which is tied to Western economic imperialism by virtue of productive work, thus limiting their capacity towards economic contribution and self-reliance. The conflict between the traditional non-formalized educational and the formal schooling system is readily apparent. Whereas the family sees child labour as rewarding both to him and to the family unit, the school attaches a negativism to such activities to the extent that children develop a dislike for manual labour and construe such work as a form of punishment. Schools also employ manual work as a form of punishment e.g. making children work on the school farm when they come late to school, or making them cut grass around the school compound when they come late to school. There is an ever widening communication gap between the school and the community. Educators tend to be very ideological. As a consequence the traditional society is represented as defective in its concepts and practices.

In an effort to uphold the Western form of education which perpetuates Western economic imperialism, the U.N. Charter on the Year of the Child prohibits child labour without considering the varying occupational systems which are primarily family oriented pursuits, in which children may be employed. Certainly empathy is extended toward children who are placed in situations which exploit child labour. However the African

scene which is less industrialized, does not expose the children to such obvious and severe job exploitation and or harzard. The safety of the African child is guaranteed through the personal contact with or supervision of his parents with whom he works.

Labour regulations take the children out of the work force because the adults feel their jobs are threatened. The labour unions make laws to safeguard the employment of adults. Huge industrial complexes, with their capacities, produce at rates and in quantities which place the schools in a position that they cannot compete, thus limiting the activities of the children in the development of practical skills through the sale of farm or related products. This reacts towards the hindrance of the development of self-reliance in children.

African educators realizing the growing awareness and need for self-reliance are introducing subjects, such as arts and crafts and agriculture in the school curriculum as means for developing the potential for independence in children. This will serve to enhance their economic base and influence their occupational pursuits. During long holidays when children are not in school, they are actively and directly involved in family labour, which contributes in a very meaningful way to the economic welfare of the family.

How much education members of a family get depends in part on the political structure of the community and concern for the basic needs of the family. Because of the variability and mobility of political structures, in particular the centralized systems of government, the family structure today is changed and ever changing. As Africa embraced the more centralised systems of government, family structure became weakened and faced a more limited scope for influencing the political life of the child. The child faces changing political structures influenced by mobility. When his parents are transferred, the child is introduced into a new political setting. When the family moves from the village community, the traditional political structures are diminished, that is, the capacity of the family to function self-reliantly, yet the loss is not replaced with a binding or supportive type of environment. This has been evident in Cameroon, particularly for a child in anglophone Cameroon who has been attending school on a single shift if the parents are transferred to francophone Cameroon where there is a double shift.

The child is constantly exposed to the effects of political structures and, to some extent, does acquire knowledge of the rise and fall of political powers or the changes in political personnel. This exposure to change does not, however, permit him to make decisions on the political issues involved. He must simply accept these political novelties without question. He grows up, therefore a frigid listener, a passive receiver with his ability to contribute to leadership positions greatly diminished.

In the traditional family society, members did not have to compete for status. Today's governmental and educational systems tend to undermine this sense of security within the family structure. Family structures have degenerated. Technologies, which are tied to political imperialism, are concerned with machines, not with the effects such machines have on human life, human values, or family structures.

Schools could become only a new form of concentration camps where the children are compressed into moulds or grades thus taking from them initiative or motivation and producing a product which reflects neither youth culture or age culture. Many teachers see teaching only as a "job" and consequently are concerned with the "job", not with the child. Examinations are a form of the selection mechanism. Since the examination system is an attribute to the political system, the teacher is concerned with the teaching "to an exam" which applies the examination selection mechanisms. He does not worry about pupils who, by virtue of circumstances beyond their control, are doomed to fail. Those doomed individuals are often likely to fall into crime or undesirable life styles.

The African child who is subjugated and forced into acceptance of a role influenced by current political and educational structures is deprived of his freedom or desire to participate in changing the society. It is not easy to forecast pupils' absorption of knowledge, neither can examinations be regarded as a true test of knowledge. Other forms for assessing a child's potentiality will have to be developed.

Children should be allowed the opportunity to share in decisions in matters in which they are involved thus promoting child responsibility and self-reliance in ability to assume roles of leadership.

As long as Africa cannot by-pass Western technologies, our educational systems are destined to support structures of Western economic and political imperialism. Child expectations are not met but are dictated.

The statements which I made previously at the conclusion of my original paper stand, that is, the education of the African child in economic and political realities is the responsibility of educators in general and curriculum developers in particular. Educators must transcend the barriers or interferences, wrongly or falsely erected by those of political influence and restore it to the honour and integrity of every child thus enabling human development. Education MUST remain in the hands of those who are conversant with African history and traditions, who understand the emergence of African nations from the repression of colonialism to present day independence with its varying needs for nurturance and stabilization.

While my previous observations may seem somewhat provincial, or Cameroonian, in scope, I cannot but feel that similar situations exist throughout Africa and that the methods and views which I have espoused as pertinent to the educational milieu in Cameroon can be applied in other African settings as well.

I cannot emphasize too strongly that at the lower levels of education which is free and available to all and which is directed to the development of self-reliance and self-esteem, of an independent and fulfilled individual, yet not losing sight of the fact that human inter-dependence is always an integral part of the growth of any nation. (A world union of children may be contemplated for the near future.) Then, and only then, will Africans assume and maintain their rightful place as a free and effective society in the Universe.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Audrey Aarons, Hugh Hawes, and Juliet Gayton,	Child-to-Child Macmillan Press 1979
Cameroon Tribune	"Focus On The International Year of the Child, 1979." by Dr. H. Mahler, Director, W.H.O. 11th April, 1979.
D and C	Heinz Peter Gerhart, "Contribution to the Year of the Child". D.S.E., Bonn, 1979.
Marian E. Addy, et al.,	"The Child in The African Environment."
Opinion	"Declaration of the Rights of the Child", UNESCO Staff Association Bulletin UNESCO, Paris, December, 1978.
The UNESCO Courier,	"The Hidden Face of Childhood", Paris, January, 1979.
UNESCO	"The Child and his Development from Birth to six years old," Paris, November, 1976.

EVALUATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD LEARNING AND TEACHING

Prof. E. Ayotunde Yo'oye
University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

I. Kinds of Evaluation

The term "evaluation" conveys different meanings to different people. The most common place meaning attached is "deciding how good or bad a particular entity is." If we applied this interpretation to early childhood education, we would in this paper be considering how to determine the extent of "goodness" or "badness" of teaching and learning in early childhood education.

This interpretation is however rather limiting and conservative because it has as its main purpose the passing of a judgement. Some judgement is inevitable in evaluation but there are more significant purposes for evaluation than the passing of a judgement per se. A distinction may be drawn by considering the purpose of the judgement.

Many judgements that we make from evaluation exercises in the school system lead to decisions of the Accept/Reject type e.g. accept or reject for the next higher class; accept or reject for admission to the next level of education; accept or reject for certification; accept or reject for a job, etc. Evaluations leading to decisions of this type are usually referred to as SUMMATIVE EVALUATION.

Judgement may however be used for a different purpose. If one starts from the basic philosophy that the purpose of a child being in a school system is that he should learn effectively what the school has to teach, periodic systematic judgements become significant for monitoring the progress of the child to ensure that any difficulties in learning are promptly dealt with and the path of the child to mastering of what is being taught is smoothened. In other words, evaluation in this setting is geared towards ensuring that the child succeeds in learning. This kind of evaluation is referred to as FORMATIVE EVALUATION.

If one were to recommend a specific position with respect to evaluation in early childhood education, one would recommend very strongly that the type of evaluation that should predominate is formative evaluation. This is especially so because the child at this stage are having their first contact with formal education and their potentials are still very much in the formative stage. Every effort should therefore be directed towards helping each child to develop his or her potential to the highest level.

II. Frames of Reference for Evaluation

The two kinds of evaluation identified above differ in another important aspect, namely: the frame of reference against which judgement is made. Usually, if judgement is of the accept/reject type, there is a constraint imposed by the situation into which acceptance or rejection is being determined. For example, acceptance or rejection into the next higher level of schooling is conditioned by how many people the next level can accommodate. Consequently an element of competition and selection is introduced. Evaluation therefore demands that the performance of a child in summative evaluation be assessed in comparison with the performance of other children in the same learning exercise. Evaluation of this type is said to be norm referenced. In other words, the scale used for determining how well a child is performing is provided by the level of performance of his colleagues.

In formative evaluation however, usually the performance of a child is assessed in relation, not to the performance of other children but to his own performance at different points in time based on a series of clearly defined learning objectives. Evaluation of this type is an aspect of what is often referred to as criterion-referenced evaluation.

To some extent, the distinction between norm-referenced evaluation and criterion-referenced evaluation is not a very rigid one. Thus criterion referenced evaluation could be followed by norm referenced evaluation based on the same data. However pedagogically there are some marked differences. Firstly, an emphasis on formative evaluation irresistably invites individualised instruction and a payment of close attention to individual differences in rates and styles of learning. Secondly while in norm-referenced evaluation, individual progress is often obscured, in criterion referenced evaluation, the progress of individual children become easily apparent. This point is of great psychological and emotional significance to the child.

To illustrate the point, let us consider the performances of three children on two tests in the same subject. Assuming that 10 specific things need to be learnt.

Child	Score on first test	Score on Second test
A	7	8
B	5	7
C	2	6

If we adopted a norm referenced approach, then in both tests, the rank order of the children is the same namely A is 1st, B is 2nd and C is 3rd. Psychologically A is likely to feel some satisfaction at being constantly on top of the class while C is likely to feel depressed that he is always at the bottom of the class. If however we adopted a criterion

referenced approach and look out how much learning each child has gained, it turns out that A has learnt only 1 more item between first and second testing, B has learnt 2 more items and C has learnt 4 more items. In a sense therefore, C has achieved the most new learning while A has achieved the least new learning. The important thing however is that the ultimate aim is for A, B and C to all learn the required 10 items so that eventually all would score 10.

Although the above example seems to imply cognitive learning, the same principle may be applied to affective and psychomotor domains of learning. However since the concept that every child should be able to learn everything that the school has to teach, very often sounds impossible to most people who have learnt about individual differences in I.Q. it may be necessary to consider this issue in a little more detail.

III. How much can a Child Learn?

Much of educational practice has been based on the theory of normal distribution of intelligence. In other words we assume probably correctly that a small number of people are near geniuses or outstanding in intellectual ability. A small number are morons or almost lacking in intellectual ability. The majority of people are spread out in a continuum around the average ability. We have therefore expected the pattern of performance in our educational institutions to conform to the pattern of distribution of intelligence. A fallacy however operates when we interpret the children's performances as indicating the limits of their capacity. There is enough evidence to show that although the score, of children often conform to the normal curve, the children are in fact capable of much more learning than the performance reflects. Put differently, the child who scores 2 out of 10 items, very often under individualized instruction can score 8 or 9 or even 10. The reason that we get the normal spread of scores is usually a reflection of our teaching procedures whereby we use exactly the same technique and same amount of time for all children in a class. Many contemporary educationists would in fact insist that the purpose of school learning is to produce not a normal curve with respect to the learning on the school syllabus but to produce a negatively kewed curve where the majority of children are scoring at the high end of the scale.

IV. What Should Be Evaluated?

As a first approximation, one can say evaluation should concern itself with the extent to which the objectives of early childhood education is achieved.

If we look through the objectives of early childhood education in many countries, we find items of the following type.

1. overall personal development
2. preparation for conditions of formal education
3. social interaction with others
4. development of communication skills
5. learning of rudiments of reading, writing and number concepts

6. healthy emotional development
7. discovery of the child's natural interests and aptitudes
8. early discovery of physical or mental handicaps to learning

(Note: This list is based on the stated objectives of early childhood education in Ghana and Liberia as stated in the papers by Menka and Greaves-Badio.)

One may group these objectives into four namely:

1. Cognitive Development (three Rs, literacy, numeracy)
2. Social and Emotional Development
3. Personality Development
4. Identification and amelioration of Handicaps to learning

At a second level of approximation, one can say that evaluation should concern itself with not just the extent to which the objectives have been achieved at particular points in time but also diagnosis of areas of difficulty and identification of needs and procedure for remedial action.

V. The Role of the Teacher in Evaluation

It should be clear from the advocacy of emphasis on formative evaluation that the primary responsibility for evaluation in early childhood education falls squarely on the teacher. In the second place, it is clear that evaluation has to become an integral part of the instructional process. Thirdly the teacher cannot assume the position of an objective outsider. He must of course be objective in his assessments but he has to be closely, even emotionally involved with the child in order to do an effective job of evaluation. This means that he has to communicate emphathically to the child that he is not a judge, but a sympathetic guide deeply committed to the success and happiness of the child.

VI Techniques and Instruments of Evaluation

Broadly two kinds of techniques are called for in the formative evaluation of early childhood education namely,

1. Observational techniques
2. Testing.

Observational techniques are particularly essential for the evaluation of social and emotional Development, Personality Development and identification of handicaps to learning. Testing is particularly suitable for cognitive development. However one should hasten to mention that both techniques complement each other in all the four groupings of objectives identified for early childhood education.

Observational Techniques are of various kinds but the two which are most relevant in early childhood education are:-

(i) Anecdotal records and

(ii) Systematic observation.

Anecdotal Records are concise written descriptions of specific events with respect to individual children or sometimes groups of children. To do a good anecdotal record, the teacher has to be clear in his mind what specific variables to look for. Instances of social interaction, agression, withdrawal, activity etc., are particularly suitable for enecdotal records. For effectiveness there has to be a separate file for each child in which cummulative anecdotal records can be kept. A review of these records periodically would indicate specific trends in the development of the child. Anecdotal records are most feasible if the teacher employs activity techniques in his teaching. However anecdotal records may also be based on children's responses to written or oral tests, e.g. recording a striking frequency in mistakes of a particular kind.

Systematic Observation is a technique which attempts to give objective descriptions of events as they occur in a class in such a way that both qualitative and quantitative inferences may be made. It usually involves the identification and listing of specific behaviours which the observer wishes to pay attention to and a procedure for recording the occurences of these behaviours. For example Social Interaction may be indicated by the following specific behaviours.

(i) child asks a question from another child

(ii) child answers a question asked by another child

(iii) child shows is work or something he has discovered to other children

(iv) child argues a point with other children

(v) child cooperates with another child or children in doing something.

One may develop these categories into a systematic observation instrument thus:

Behaviour Category	Specific Behaviours	Tally of occurences
SOCIAL INTERACTION	1. child asks a question from another child	1
	2. child answers a question by another child	1
	3. child shows his work to another child	111
	4. child argues a point with other children	1
	5. child cooperates with another child in doing something	

A record such as shown here would indicate reasonably clearly that the child's most common type of social interaction with other children is argument and there is hardly any instance of cooperation. Records kept for individual children over a long period of time could reveal the patterns of development of the child and the teacher may then address his attention to stimulating absent desirable behaviours, or eliminating frequent undesirable behaviours. The various behaviour categories in which one may be interested can be broken down into specific behaviours as above and used for systematic observation.

Tests may be oral written or performance. In the early years when the skills of writing have not been developed, clearly emphasis must be on oral and performance tests but as the child develops reading and writing ability, written tests may be added. In general a combination of all three kinds should be used as appropriate. Another implication of the age of the children for testing is that testing at the early stages have to be predominantly individual while group testing can be introduced in the upper grades.

VII. Recording and Reporting Evaluation

The essential thing in evaluation in early childhood education is that the records should be cumulative. Children in this age range can change fairly rapidly. It should be possible to discern from the records the patterns of change and so help in structuring the instructional process.

Summary reports which go to parents at the end of school terms or years should preferably highlight the areas in which the child has developed and the nature of the development should be indicated. In other words evaluation reports should be not merely a set of scores and rank position in class but a vivid description of what the child has in fact achieved during the period.

THE ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF THE KENYA INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION IN KENYA'S EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

E.M. Mugiri
Director
Kenya Institute of Education,
Nairobi, Kenya.

Introduction

The Republic of Kenya, on the East Coast of Africa, extends roughly 4° on each side of the Equator and stretches between longitudes 34°E and 42°E. It covers an area of 583,000 square kilometres (225,000 sq. miles) and has a population of approximately 14.5 (1979) which is growing at the rate of 3.6% per annum.

Kenya became independent in 1963 and a Republic within the Commonwealth of Nations in 1964. Since Independence, Kenya has been engaged in the task of qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion of education coupled with a reconstruction of the curriculum so as to make it more relevant to the Kenya scene. Qualitative expansion, particularly at the secondary level, has made great strides, but we are always conscious of the need to maintain high standards so that expansion does not in any way impair the quality of education imparted to the younger generations.

Kenya is conscious of the multinational character of her society and the international setting of which she is a part. Her Educational outlook therefore reflects both Kenyan and international values.

Kenya is very conscious of education as an instrument for the achievement of specific national goals. These goals are:

1. Fostering a sense of nationhood and promoting national unity.
2. Meeting the economic and social needs of national development, equipping the youth of the country to play an effective and productive role in the life of the nation.
3. Providing opportunities for the fullest development of individual talents and personality.
4. Promoting social equality and fostering a sense of social responsibility.
5. Respecting and developing Kenya's cultural heritage.
6. Fostering international consciousness.

Thus the role of Kenya Institute of Education in educational development should be seen in the context of the above national goals.

The Institute has grown out of a merger of three existing organizations; the former Curriculum Development and Research Centre (CDRC), a previous Kenya Institute of Education and the former Schools Broadcasting Unit (SBU).

Prior to 1st July, 1976, the Kenya Institute of Education was a regular department of the Ministry of Education. However, as from that date it became a grants-in-aid institution controlled by a governing Council which has several Committees to enable it to operate speedily. While the Council directly exercises its administrative functions, it delegates its professional responsibilities to an Academic Board.

Since most of the professional activities of KIE are directed to schools and colleges, and since all professional matters in schools and colleges are controlled by the Director of Education, it is important that the Director of Education ultimately controls the professional activities of KIE. To facilitate this control the Director of Education is Chairman of the Academic Board.

In effect, therefore, the administrative control of KIE is exercised by the Council and the professional control is in the hands of the Director of Education. The distinction between the Council's control of KIE and that of Director of Education is a subtle one, but it is a very important distinction.

To facilitate the working of the Academic Board, there are several Course and Subject Panels. The Course Panels are chaired by the Chief Inspector of Schools, and the Subject Panels are chaired, as far as possible, by Subject Inspectors. This arrangement ensures that the deliberations of the panels are in line with the latest thinking of the Ministry of Education which the inspectors, as representatives of the Director of Education, would be familiar with.

The Functions of the Institute

The functions of the Institute shall be:-

(a) to conduct research and prepare syllabuses for pre-school education, primary school education secondary school education, teacher education, special education, post-school technical and business education and adult education.

(b) to conduct research and prepare teaching and evaluation materials to support any syllabuses including the preparation of books, teachers' guides, mass media programmes and similar materials;

(c) to conduct in-service courses and workshops for any teacher who is involved in carrying out experiments and trials of any new syllabuses and teaching materials;

(d) to organize seminars on any syllabus and teaching materials for inspectors of schools and teachers' training college staff;

(e) to organize orientation programmes for education officers to keep them informed of the developments that are taking place in the schools and teachers' college curricula;

(f) to transmit programmes through mass media to support the developments that are taking place in education;

(g) to conduct research in, and evaluation of correspondence developments that are taking place in education;

(h) to prepare correspondence courses for students and teachers;

(i) to organize courses, seminars and orientation programmes for the guidance of teachers and educational administrators.

The Institute is organized into three departments:

Curriculum Development and Research, Educational Media Service and Administration. Each of these departments is further devided into several sections.

The Institute develops curriculum as well as multi-media materials for pre-school, primary, secondary, teacher education, special education, technical and business education, as well as for adult and continuing education. The Institute also undertakes basic research and evaluation to support its curriculum development activities. Thus the institute caters for a formal school population distributed as follows:

(a) Primary Schools: Enrolment 2,881,000 (1975).

(b) Secondary Schools:Enrolment 78,700 (1975).

It is also interesting to note the enrolment in Teachers Colleges.
Teachers Colleges: Enrolment (1975)

Primary Teachers College	Secondary Teachers Non-Graduates	Secondary Teachers Graduates
8,670	840	1,830

Development of Pre-School Education in Kenya (An Overview)

The development of Pre-School Education in Kenya can conveniently be discussed under two broad categories:-

(a) Pre-School Education in Urban areas

(b) Pre-School Education in rural Kenya.

In the urban areas, the development of nursery school education is heterogeneous. There are a variety of agencies involved, each with goals and approaches that have a great diversity. However, the growth and development of nursery education in rural Kenya is to a large extent, homogeneous. Most of the nursery centres in the rural areas are established and run by communities through self-help efforts known in Kenya as Harambee. The Government involvement in the development of these institutions is minimal. It is noteworthy to mention that the development of self-help nursery school is a mass movement that has significant contribution to the macro education system in the country. For inst nce statistical evidence indicates that in 1973, there were over 5,400 nursery centres in the country, built by parents on Harambee efforts with a teaching force of 6,000 teachers are recruited and employed by parents committees. During the same period, there were over 300,000 children attending these institutions.

Government Assistance to Nursery Schools:

Although it has been mentioned that the Government is not directly involved with the establishment of nursery institutions in the country, it is important to point out that various Government departments give assistance to these self-help institutions. These include:

(a) *Ministry of Housing and Social Services* -

Gives advice to self-help committee through field-staff

Runs four National Training Institutions where nursery centre teachers are trained. These are:- Njoro, Kisii, Embu and Matuga.

(b) *Ministry of Local Government (Local Authorities)*

Employs field staff (CDA) who help in supervision of nursery schools. Some local authorities employ nursery school teachers, which helps to ease the burden of recurrent budgets and personal emoluments.

(c) *Ministries of Health and Agricultural*

Provice health field educators and field nutritionists who advice parents and nursery teachers on matters relating to paediatric diseases and nutritional requirements for nursery school children.

(d) Ministry of Education

The Ministry's contribution to the development of pre-school education in the country has been entrusted to the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). In 1972, the Kenya Government in collaboration with an external sponsor the Bernard Van Leer Foundation of the development of the Hague, Holland Instituted a research project to focus on the development of pre-school education in Kenya. The Kenya Institute of Education was identified as the implementing agent. The operational framework is given briefly:-

(e) Project's Objectives

(i) To devise a teacher training programme for upgrading and preparation for early childhood education in Kenya.

(ii) To develop experimentally a nursery school curriculum, for the nursery schools.

(iii) To organise and conduct research in significant areas of the Project.

(f) Training

For the last seven years, the project has been investigating suitable and relevant training models that can be used by various agencies to training nursery school personnel in Kenya. On course of this experimentation, four groups of teachers have undergone training and the fifth group is currently on training. Two groups were from an urban setting and two groups from a rural setting. The fifth group now in training is from a rural setting. It is also project that two other groups drawn of two rural contexts will also participate in the programme during the project's planned period. The Project's philosophy regarding training is that in each context, the project helps to train a small group of key personnel who can be used to train others in their area. Using the framework of this philosophy, three contexts out of the four in which training has been concluded, the project's graduates are being used to train their colleagues. The project's training strategies therefore, has an inbuilt multiplier effect. The outcomes and the impact of these training mechanisms remain to be evaluated.

Curriculum Development Perspective

The project does not believe in developing the curriculum at the centre and disseminate it to the nursery schools at the peripheral. Instead, the Project staff together with the trainees has developed guidelines which should help teachers to establish basis for identifying relevant and suitable curriculum materials in their own local environment.

Strategies for development of solid and manipulative sample materials are being formulated. The project also plans to design frame-work for developing picture books, charts, card-games and puzzles based on local experiences.

Research-Perspective

It should be pointed out that research components are integral components embodied in both training and curriculum development undertaking. In addition, the project is formulating research designs and data collection instrument which help the project to gather information on the pre-school child, his environment and the community in which he lives.

Primary Education

Primary Education in Kenya aims at preparing and equipping our youth to be happy and useful members of the Kenyan Society. To be happy, the Kenyan Youth must learn and accept the national values and to be useful they must actively work towards the maintenance and development of the society.

The early childhood education particularly aims at providing the child in the early years of schooling a balanced and co-ordinated educational experience made up of the development of communication skills, the acquisitions of literacy numeracy and manual dexterity, sense training, individual training in self-expression and self control and social training.

A Kenyan Child enters Primary School at the age of about 6 years.

The language policy is that in the lower primary schools the home language should be the medium of instruction. This in the vast majority of Lower Primary Classes particularly in the rural areas, mother tongue is used as a medium of instruction. In some schools mainly in urban areas, lack of a common mother-tongue in the classroom make Kiswahili the most logical language to use as a medium of instruction particularly where it is used as a lingua-franca. In a small number of select schools in the Urban area English is used as a medium of instruction.

Where mother-tongue or Kiswahili is used as medium of instruction, number work in Lower Primary poses a special problem because course books are written in English. Teachers are therefore advised to teach mathematical technical vocabularily in English form to help the children understand the Mathematical Concepts.

In Standard 1 and 2 Mathematics, Science, Art and Crafts, Religious Education, Physical Education, Music as well as English and Kiswahili are taught. In Standard 3 History and Geography are added on the time table.

The Primary Section of the Kenya Institute of Education under the guidance of relevant subject panels have over the years produced a number of Lower Primary course teaching materials particularly in the areas of English - Kiswahili - Mother Tongue - Science - Music and Mathematics and Re igious Education, Geography and History. In the Upper Primary (From Standard 4-7) English is the language of instruction but it is also taught as a subject. The subjects offered in Upper Primary include Science - Mathematics - Home Science- Art Education - Physical Education, Religious Education (Christian or Islamic) Geography - History - Music - English and Kiswahili.

Primary Education Section of the Kenya Institute of Education have on-going projects for the above subjects where curriculum materials are developed for use in Primary Schools.

Special Education

Background Information:

The Care for the handicapped in Kenya dates as early as Mid 1940s when the Salvation Army, one of the Voluntary Organizations that have been concerned with the Welfare of the handicapped in Kenya, started a school for the visually handicapped in Thika. Its buildings were initially designed to serve as a camp for the ex-war men who had lost their sight in World War II. It was later switched into a school for the blind children. During the same period a school for the mentally handicapped was opened in Nairobi, currently known as Jacaranda Special School. Again in late 1950s two schools for the hearing impaired were established under the auspices of Kenya Society for the Deaf and the Roman Catholic Mission in Western Province.

However, after 1963, many schools for the handicapped mushroomed up in most parts of our Republic because the Government showed great interest in this area and it was now a Government policy that all children be provided with at least basic education, regardless of their background or disability. As a result of this policy, and the fact that Special Schools provide free education, and boarding facilities, by December, 1978, there were:

(i) 24 schools, units and vocational centres for the Mentally Handicapped.

(ii) 15 schools, Units and Vocational Centres for the Mentally Handicapped.

(iii) 8 schools, Units and homes for the Physically Handicapped.

(iv) 10 schools, units and vocational centres for the Visually Handicapped. (One of these schools is a high school for the Blind with "O" and "A" level classes.)

(v) Two Teacher Training Colleges for the:

(a) Teachers of the Hearing Impaired.

(b) Teachers of the Mentally Handicapped.

The entrance requirements within these two Colleges are:

(a) P1 Teachers or above, who have taught for not less than 3 years.

(b) One of these years should be in a Special School of their interest.

It is also anticipated that by 1980, there will be a teacher training unit for teachers of the Visually Handicapped within one of the existing Teacher Training Colleges.

All teachers within these special schools and units are provided for by Teachers Service Commission.

According to Kenya's 1979-89 Development Plan, the enrolment within Special Schools will increase from 3,449 in 1979 to 6,180 in 1983. The government assistance will be extended to fields of Pre-Primary, establishment of Sheltered Workshops, and provision of adequate equipment for the handicapped, previously provided for by Voluntary Organizations.

During the expansion phase, the Kenya Government has authorized £1.4 million for development of schools, and nearly £2.6 for recurrent expenditures. Unfortunately, the number of the handicapped receiving education is just a drop in an ocean for it is estimated that there are:

(a) 15,000 Hearing Impaired Children (1,419 in school by 1979).

(b) 70,000 Visually Handicapped Children (1,195 in school by 1979).

(c) 15,000 Mentally Handicapped Children (200 in school by 1979).

(d) 50,000 Physically Handicapped Children (665 in school by 1979).

N.B. These figures need research to validate them.

Since its inception in July, 1976, Special Education Section in the Kenya Institute of Education has developed as one unit catering for the following subject panels under its wing:

(a) Visually Handicapped

(b) Mentally Handicapped

(c) Physically Handicapped

(d) Hearing Impaired

(e) Vocational Trades and Technical Training Panel.

Most of the subject panels have formed various working sub-committees which have been working day and night preparing curriculum materials for our handicapped.

As an example, by 30th June, 1979:

A. The Hearing Impaired Working Sub-Committees had prepared:

(i) Provisional Curriculum and Guidelines for Pre-Primary (Nursery, infant, and class I) i.e. Phase I.

(ii) Provisional Curriculum and Guidelines for Lower Primary (classes 2, 3 and 4) i.e. Phase II.

(iii) Provisional Curriculum and Guidelines for Mid-Primary (classes 5, 6 and 7) i.e. Phase III.

These three documents deal on Specialist Subjects (speech, auditory training and language) for the Profound Deaf. They have been devised and developed from scratch.

B. The Mentally Handicapped Working Sub-Committees had prepared:

(i) Perceptual Training and Communication draft Syllabuses

(ii) Teacher's Guide on these two Syllabuses.

(iii) Draft Mathematic Syllabus for the Mildly Mentally Handicapped.

(iv) Mathematic Readiness Test.

C. The Visually Handicapped working Sub-Committees are working on Mathematics, Science, Home-Science and Living Skills so that suitable materials could be developed to meet the needs of a Visually Handicapped Child.

In conclusion, the Section is still in its infancy, and as more professional staff join the Section, we anticipate to do more for our handicapped of Kenya so that the chances of survival and the quality of children's life would be greatly enhanced.

Teacher Education

There are 18 Teachers Colleges in which teachers for Primary Schools are trained. The annual intake of these colleges is about 4,000 students. The duration of the training is two years. The majority of students come to college after passing the East African Certificate of Education ('O' level). A small number, however, is taken after passing the Kenya Junior or Secondary Examination which is done after 2 years in secondary school.

The Teacher Education Section of the Institute, through the Teacher Education Course Panel, coordinates the courses which are run in the Colleges. The subjects done in colleges are:-

Professional Studies, Mathematics, English, Kiswahili, History, Geography, General Science, Agriculture, Religious Education, Physical Education, Home Science, Music and Art. Different subject courses are catered for by the relevant primary subject panels. As these panels make changes in the Primary School Curriculum they also make suggestions for the changes which should take p ace in the Teacher Education as far as their subjects are concerned. The subject which is directly the responsibility of the Teacher Education Section is the Professional Studies Course. This includes topics such as Philosophy of Education, History of Education, Educational Psychology, Sociology of Education, etc.

All students do the same courses in the college. At the end of their training they do an examination set by the Examination Section of the Ministry of Education. They are then graded according to their performance in this examination.

Courses and Seminars are organised for the college tutors so as to keep them abreast with any new methods of approach in their subject areas. In-service courses are also held for the purpose of up-dating the untrained teachers in the different subject field. These courses are run as a joint effort between the Institute, the Inspectorate and the Teachers Colleges.

Production of Multi-Media Packages

A medium means the channel through which knowledge and ideas are passed on effective curriculum development. It must include a consideration of the media available to pass on to the users the content and methodology of the curriculum.

To enable the curriculum specialists at the Kenya Institute of Education to make use of a variety of media according to their potential and applicability, the Educational Media Service (E.M.S.) has been established as an integral part of the Institute.

Audio and visual specialists from the Educational Media Service work alongside curriculum specialists in the development of materials. The media specialists are themselves teacher trained with expertise in the subjects in which they work. They are therefore able to understand the particular needs of the curriculum specialists and to help them choose suitable and effective media for their materials.

Working together in this way, the two groups of specialists are able to design packages of materials in different media according to the needs of the curriculum and the ability of the users to utilise them.

The Educational Media Service is in a development stage but is already equipped to produce radio and audio taped materials, tape/slide materials, 16 mm films, charts and pictorial and print materials and T.V. Programmes. Its capability in some of these areas is still being developed, but by 1982 it will have the trained staff and the formalities to provide a full media service to the curriculum specialists.

The Visual Section has been working closely with the Pre-School Section of the Institute and has also been preparing materials specifically for the International Year of the Child. The Audio Section Broadcasts on a regular timetable to schools and concentrates particularly on materials for Primary Schools which have been developed alongside print materials for the curriculum. It also offers a tape copying service to schools which enables them to build up their own resource materials. The Resources Section is working closely with Teachers Advisory Centres in the field and Learning Resource Centres in Teachers Colleges in the development of more effective learning experiences and also produces charts and pictorial and print materials for school use.

Field Support Services

The Curriculum and Curriculum materials developed by the Kenya Institute of Education and disseminated by it and Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (publisher) require professional support in the field for their effective introduction into

the schools. Such a function is carried out by the Primary School Inspectors and staff of the Teachers Advisory Centres (T.A.C.). Both of these groups of people act as important links between the Kenya Institute of Education and the teachers in the schools by transmitting feedback on a two-way channel. The Inspectors and T.A.C. Staff being members of the national subject panels of the Kenya Institute of Education also facilitate teacher in-put into curriculum development.

TACs working in conjuction with the Inspectors regularly provide orientation, refresher and induction courses covering all aspects of the primary school curriculum. Frequently the Kenya Institute of Education Professional Staff assist in manning such courses to up-date the teaching force in primary schools.

The produced curriculum materials are distributed to the government schools through the School Equipment Scheme and they may also be purchased through retail outlets. A network of subject committees has been established to examine and recommend commercially produced subject materials for use in schools to support the national curriculum materials.

Learning Resource Centres are being developed in every Primary Teachers Training College and will provide a similar support system as the TACs additionally strengthening the links between the national curriculum development body and the serving teacher.

As the design of the new primary school curriculum (and the projected redesign of the secondary school curriculum) grows apace, the Inspectors, Teachers Advisory Centre and Learning Resource Centre Staff will have a vitally important and critical innovatory role to play in the successful implementation of the new-style curriculum.

Evaluation

One of the major functions of Kenya Institute of Education stated in the Education Act of 1968, is to conduct research and prepare teaching and evaluation materials to support any syllabuses including the preparation of books, teachers guides, mass media programmes and similar materials. To carry-out this function, Basic Research and Evaluation Section was created at the Institute.

Evaluation is an important element in any school curriculum. Simply stated, it is a method of finding out whether or not the stated goals and objectives have been achieved and to what degree. As a curriculum developing centre we undertake both "formative" and "summative" evaluation. Through formative evaluation new curriculum materials, innovative teaching methods and procedures are tried and accordingly revised and improved to form the final materials to be used in our schools. In undertaking summative evaluation, we aim at assessing the overall effectiveness and quality of the new curriculum as well as what kind of improvements are needed for the next lot of students. As a matter of fact evaluation is viewed as a continuing process even after the introduction of the new curriculum into all schools and colleges.

At every stage of education in Kenya, a summative evaluation of pupils is undertaken. In the early stages of education it is mainly for selecting children into the next entry point in the educational system. There are no standardized entry requirements to Standard I (grade 1). To assess pupils competence the majority of schools rely on either progress reports or letters of recommendation. In the so called high-cost schools, children are tested before admission. In the rural schools very often there are no entry requirements.

At the end of 7 years of Primary Education pupils sit for Certificate of Primary Education (CPE). This examination tests mainly the cognitive attributes of the child's personality and is mainly used for selection to secondary schools. In this examination every child who takes it is certified. For those who fail to gain entry into Secondary Schools, CPE becomes a terminal examination for them. This is because the aided and unaided Secondary Schools between them can only take about 20% of the primary school graduates. The opportunity index for government aided secondary schools stands at about 13%. The enrolment statistics for unaided secondary education are unreliable and the figures available are only approximations.

The Basic Research and Evaluation Section undertakes research on different aspects of education at all levels either individually or in collaborations with other curriculum specialists.

TRAINING THE AFRICAN TEACHER FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

L.I. Kipkorir
Kenya Institute of Education,
Nairobi, Kenya.

Primary School Level (for children aged six onwards)

Training:

There are seventeen Government and one private primary Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya and with an enrolment of over 8,000 teachers. Each year 4,500 teachers come out of college and join the teaching force.

Requirements for Teaching Education

The entry requirements for pre-service training are a minimum of Kenya Junior Secondary Examination or a Division IV in the East African Certificate of Education Examination. In each case, the candidate must have passed in English, Mathematics and a Science subject. Preference is given to the candidates with higher 'O' level passes.

The teachers undergo a two-year training course covering all the subjects included in the primary school curriculum. At the end of the course teachers are graded as P3, P2, and P1 depending on their individual performance in the final Teachers' Certificate Examination. The Government has been concerned about the need to improve the quality of primary education. Because of the shortage of qualified trained primary teachers (there are at present 28,000 untrained teachers in the teaching service out of a total teaching force of 85,000 primary school teachers) the pre-service teacher education students are selected mainly from the pool of untrained teachers in primary schools. All untrained teachers must satisfy the minimum entry requirements for the pre-service training before they are employed to teach in the schools.

Employment:

On completion of the training course, all teachers both primary and secondary are employed by the Teachers Service Commission.

Promotion:

All promotions of teachers are based on merit. Classroom teaching, length and quality of service, passing of recognised examinations, acceptance and ability to carry out responsibility are usually considered before recommendation for promotion is given. Involvement in school extra-curriculum activities and participation in community affairs are some of the qualities that are sought in teachers to make them eligible for promotion.

In-Service Course

Primary School Teachers and Administrative Personnel in primary education receive a number of in-service courses from time to time. So far there have been:-

(i) Inservice Courses for untrained teachers for certification purposes.

(ii) Inservice Courses for both trained and untrained teachers geared to updating them not only in the new curriculum but also in some identified problem areas of the existing curriculum.

(iii) Inservice Courses for educational personnel

(iv) Inservice Courses for tutors in colleges and Teachers Advisory Centres.

The Inspectorate is responsible for implementing the curriculum and the inservice programme. There are subject Inspectors both at the National and district level.

The Kenya Institute of Education prepares the training and teaching materials and together with the Inspectorate conduct some of the inservice courses.

Finally, all the Education Officers, Inspectors, Curriculum Developers, College Tutors and the Teachers are employees of the Ministry of Education.

Pre-School Education in Africa

I have given the above brief information regarding the primary school teacher so as to be able to highlight the position, situation and condition under which the first half of the Early Childhood Education teacher operates.

During the Economic Commission for Africa Workshop on "The Development and Functions of Day Care Centre Activities in African" held in May, 1977 in Nairobi in which 17 African Countries were represented, the following summary report on background information was recorded. The history

and background given on the establishment of Day Care activities in Africa presented two main features.

(i) The first was the establishment of pre-school institutions for and by expatriates, mainly in urban areas.

(ii) Then came the development of such institutions by churches and other welfare organisations.

(iii) As each country became independent there was an expansion of these centres by the people themselves.

(iv) These centres are defined as institutions which cater for organised activities outside the family for children under school going age which in many countries is six years.

The need for a government policy in relation to pre-school programmes was strongly emphasized. Most of the countries represented did not have an organised governmental policy designed for pre-school programmes. It was felt that the lack of standardized policy provisions considerably weakened whatever action and/or facilities a Ministry would like to take to improve pre-school work.

Objectives of Pre-School Programmes

Most of the countries represented had formulated objectives for their programmes covering areas of; socialization of the child, promotion of mental and physical development, provision of care for children of working parents, provision of good health and nutrition services, provision of teaching the child his national and cultural heritage, the education of parents and the community and preparation of the child for primary school.

Administrative Structure National/Central Level

Pre-School Programmes in most of the countries are regarded as social welfare or community development activities. In more than half of the countries represented pre-school programmes fell under the Ministry of Social Services or Ministries closely related to the fields of social services and community development. In some countries there was some joint responsibility. This joint responsibility was implemented through advisory or steering committees. It was pointed out that real problems were experienced due to this splitting of responsibilities as it resulted in duplication of training, lack of coordination in recommendations and supervision, differences in standards and no uniform policy regarding standards for and employment of personnel.

Local Level

The individual pre-school centres were in most countries financed and managed through groups outside the government. These groups are either religious, parents associations, employers, voluntary agencies, private persons, or local authorities. With exception of a few countries most centres are situated in urban areas. A large number of the centres are run by a management committee. The committees are responsible for the day to day operation of the centre, supervision of personnel, building and funding. Fees are in most cases the main source of income. Some of the centres are subsidised by grants from government, local authorities and welfare agencies.

Lack of funds for the centres was considered to be a serious problem. The fees the parents pay were often not enough to pay even the teacher's salary. No funds were available for maintenance and equipment. Where fees are the main source of income for the centre the teachers often tend to enrol as many children as possible in order to raise the money. This in turn lowers the standard of the centre by overcrowding which results in the teachers inability to provide meaningful activities. In such cases the benefit to the child is minimal or non-existent. The foregone observations were made by representatives of several African Countries. Hopefully the picture has changed by now at least in some of them.

Pre-School Education in Kenya

Pre-school education is a term which includes a range of educational institutions for infants. Some of the centres incorporated into pre-school are:- day nurseries, play groups, kindergartens, day care centres and nursery schools all catering for children under the age of six.

The earliest pre-schools in Kenya started before independence and those were primarily for Europeans and were located in the urban areas. But gradually they have increased and spread to the rural areas. The emergence and expansion of pre-schools may be seen as a response to different needs. Generally, planned activities for children were introduced in the rural areas and major towns as part of community welfare and health activities to meet the nutritional, clinical and custodial needs of the children. But mainly due to the limited educational background of teachers and pressures from parents, these centres have become informal, extensions of lower primary schools both in style and content. For many parents, concentration on academic activities is the basic reason for the centres' existence. While the child care functions of pre-schools cannot be ruled out altogether, the development of pre-schooling is largely a response by all to the strong demand for education.

Kenya has a population of 13.4 million. Kenya's population under five represents 20% of the population and there are nearly 3 million children under the age of six. The children currently attending pre-school centres is about 350,000 and this is only about one fifth of the total population of children between the ages of 3 and 6 years. A comparison of the number of children attending pre-schools with the number of pre-school age children shows that there are still more than a million children not catered for.

The modal age for children attending pre-schools is between four and six and the range is two and a half to six years. Primary schools generally admit children in standard one at the age of six years. The existing minimum age for entry into standard I has been determined by the available educational opportunities.

Nearly all the pre-schools cater for children in the mornings only. Those which are supposed to be full day do not have a feeding programme, so that full days pre-schools mostly have half day pupils. Most of the children who have access to pre-school centre spend one or two years before going to primary school. The fees charged in the pre-school centres range from 9 shillings to 1,800 shillings per term. The rural centres average 15 - 45 shillings per term and the urban centres between 300 - 1800 shillings per term. Despite the high fees (considering that primary education is now free up to standard 6) the parents still want to send their children to these centres. Some of the reasons parents give for starting pre-school centres include; child care (keep the children safe, busy, protected and away from bad behaviour) Education (to learn, prepare for primary school, acquaint with school life), substitute for primary school and need for admission to primary school.

School Facilities

Most of pre-school centres in the urban areas have well built permanent buildings. In the rural areas most of the pre-school centres buildings are temporary, but permanent and semi - permanent buildings are becoming common. Some centres are housed in churches or community facilities. Many lack play and health facilities. Indoor equipment is limited to desks and chairs.

Teachers

In the work of promoting good activities for the pre-school there is at least one misconception which seems to be shared by many people. Namely, the belief that the younger the children the less they are supposed to cost e.g. pre-school teachers generally are given shorter training and are paid less than the primary school teachers. This happens in spite the fact that it is agreed that the foundation of a human being's personality is laid down during the early years.

Of the six thousand teachers in the rural areas probably only about half have completed primary education. Very few have been trained for a year and about one-third have attended courses lasting from one week to six months. Salaries for rural teachers vary from 80 shillings - 200 shillings per month in the parent committee managed centres to between 200 - 600 shillings in the local authorities centres to over 1,000 shillings per month in the private urban centres. For the teachers in the parent committee centres the salary comes from the fees paid by the children.

The major problem facing the untrained teacher is that she does not plan. The untrained teacher lacks the skills of classroom management, of instructional techniques, selecting and making suitable apparatus and of keeping records. It is probable that she does not see the need for these skills neither has she been made aware of their importance.

Parents' expectations have tended to weigh heavily on preparation for primary school (since some schools have made this a pre requisite for entry to standard I) at the expense of other activities which are equally important at this early stage. As a result, many activities in pre-school centres are characterised by learning names of numbers, names of letters and objects in the classroom. Besides these, teachers face other problems like, irregular and insufficient salaries, large classes and children of varying ages.

In spite all these problems, many of these teachers have been very dedicated to their children and are always looking for ways to improve themselves. With some assistance they will turn out to be a strong force and help deal with many problems facing early childhood education.

Training of Pre-School Teachers

Most of the longer courses for pre-school teachers have been conducted by the Ministry of Housing and Social Services. The Government has four National Training Institutions where the one year and six month courses have been run. The Ministry also developed guidelines and recommendations on instruction at the training and school level. Short courses are also offered at provincial and district level. Most of these courses are planned by Social Welfare Officers or Community Development Officers and are financed by local authorities. These courses are not standardized at the national level. Another government undertaking is the Pre-School Education Project at the Kenya Institute of Education. This is a research project on the training of pre-school teachers and the development of pre-school curriculum. Many other agencies and organisations run courses for teachers and some award certificates.

There are some problems which make the training of pre-school teachers difficult. Since there are no requirements before one is employed as a teacher, teachers attending the same course are usually unmatched in their understanding level. The trainer is confronted with teachers some of whom have had only primary five schooling and others gone to secondary school.

Where training course is available, most of the teachers have had to resign their jobs in order to attend the courses. What makes this more painful is that these teachers are replaced when they go for courses and many have completed courses and remained unemployed. Although there are very many pre-school centres and few trained teachers, trained teachers have employment difficulties. They naturally expect to earn more than they earned before training, yet committees which do not know the importance of training often refuse to pay this increase. Thus the trained teacher finds herself losing a job to someone without training who is willing to work for a lower pay. Thus the pre-school teacher in Kenya is still faced with many problems some of which can be solved through training but others need government intervention.

Pre-School Education, the Community and Government

Pre-school education should be part of community oriented programme including better preventive and environmental health, improved nutritious foods and home improvement. A pre-school centre cannot by itself provide for the entire range of the children's needs. The pre-school centre can however become a channel through which services can reach young children. The nursery teacher if well trained, employed and renumerated can be not only a teacher of children but also of parents and can spread awareness of practices which promote health, hygiene, safety and physical and mental growth.

Although it would be unrealistic to expect governments of developing countries struggling to meet basic needs in every field to finance and run nation-wide pre-school programmes on an adequate basis, a policy on pre-school education must be made by the government. For sometime to come, financing and day to day operations will have to be done by the parents' groups and voluntary agents. The government should however make long term plans to eventually support this venture fully like other services to the people. At the moment, the government can without much cost legislate minimum standards, organise training courses, design and produce the appropriate curriculum and coordinate the efforts of the voluntary bodies. We note that a policy alone will not work wonders but the personnel, structure of training and utilising people in the field can suffice.

The government should also determine what patterns of pre-school education are appropriate to its people's needs and resources.

This paper has deliberately gone to great length in dealing with problems in pre-school education, at least in Kenya, without offering some solutions. It is expected that this workshop will at least shed some light on some of the issues and discuss possible alternatives. The question now is not whether pre-school education is needed or not for the people themselves have expressed that need and taken steps to meet that need. The question is what type of pre-school education that links up with primary education should a country design.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

J. Balcomb — Two Cheers for Day Care
Kenya Education Review Vol.3, No.2 1976

O.N. Gakuru — Pre Primary Education and Access to Educational Opportunities, Nairobi 1977

A. Krystall and A. Maleche — Day Care Instruction and Training

A. Krystall and A. Maleche — Self Help and Voluntary Day Care Centres 1975

Pre School Education Project — Report on Teacher Training and Curriculum Development, 1978

Report on Workshop on the Development and Functions of Day Care Centre Activities in Africa. ECA 1977.

D. Mbiti and E.M. Mugiri — In-Service Teacher Education in Kenya, 1979.

THE STATUS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN KENYA

O.N. Gakuru
Institute for Development Studies,
University of Nairobi.

Introduction

Pre-school education is a term which includes a range of infant institutions. The more specific labels used in Nairobi and other urban areas are: day nursery, play-group, kindegarten and pre-school. Similar institutions in rural districts are commonly known as day care centres. The pre-school concept refers to the fact that all such institutions comprise an organised educational structure that preceeds the elementary education. In this paper, the term nursery school is used to refer to all types of pre-school institutions.

The total number of children involved in organised pre-school education has made it a mass movement affecting thousands of Kenya families. In the rural areas, in 1973, nearly 400,000 children attended 5,800 day care centres and were taught by 6,326 teachers. In Nairobi, there is an estimated total enrolment of close to 15,000 children in about 215 nursery schools and under the guidance of an estimated 700 teachers. (Gakuru 1976[1], K.I.E., 1978[2]).

The number of children enrolled in nursery schools is therefore visibly large, but it is only a small fraction, less than one-fifth of the total population of children between the ages of 3 - 6 years. In 1969, there were about one and half million people. (Kenya Population Census 1969)[3]. To-day the number of pre-school age children is expected to be much higher than it was ten years ago. According to the latest population estimates there are about 13.4 million people in Kenya with at least 87 per cent living in the rural areas. (I.R.S. 1977)[4]. A comparison of the number of children attending nursery schools with the total number of nursery age children shows that more than a million children are left on their own to play around the home-steads in rural areas and along the streets in urban centres except a few disabled children enrolled in the special schools. Some of the children who do not attend nursery schools enter primary schools later. However, there are others who do not attend both the nursery and primary schools. These children who are left out of the school system become the target of literacy classes in their adult-hood.

Age of Pupils:

The modal age for children attending pre-school education is between four and five years and the range is two to six years. Government primary schools generally admit children in standard 1 at the age of six years. However, in some rural districts and the urban centres some children go to primary schools when they are five and not six as is officially required. The minimum age requirement is fixed largely because there are not enough places for all children old enough to enter primary school particularly in Nairobi. Thus, the hidden criterion for the existing minimum age for entry into standard 1 is determined by the available educational opportunities and not by the educational needs and readiness of the children. The scarcity of standard one places the big urban centres coupled with arbitrary methods of admitting children into primary school raises a problem of selection which can contribute to an interest in pre-school education.

Fee Structure:

The fees charged in pre-schools range from Sh.30/- to about Sh.3,000/- a term. The harambee day care centres charge roughly Sh.30/- a term in the rural areas and Sh.60/- in Nairobi. In Nairobi, large numbers of pre-schools have been established throughout the higher income suburbs of the city. Nearly all of them charge fees which are substantially higher than those of the primary schools. However, attendance at one of them for at least a year is now virtually a pre-requisite for entry into a high-cost primary school. Fees at these schools are usually between Sh.750/- and Sh.3,000/- per term. The many pre-school institutions that have been established in the lower income communities in Nairobi charge fees between Sh.12/- and Sh.400/- per term. The city's day nurseries charge different fees: Sh.75/-, Sh.200/-, Sh.250/- per month for low, medium and high cost schools respectively. Taken as a whole, 75 per cent of the pre-school in Nairobi, excluding the city's self-help day care centres, charge fees between Sh.150/- and Sh.750/- per term. Thus, parents at all economic levels spend large sums of money on pre-school education. After all a sum of even Sh.10/- to Sh.20/- per month is a lot of money for most families in the rural areas or poor urban communities bearing in mind that they have a multiplicity of competing needs for their meagre incomes.

Duration:

Nearly all the nursery schools cater for children in the mornings only. Officially, the self-help nursery schools are supposed to be full day, but lacking lunch for children to eat and space for them to nap on in the early afternoon, these institutions find it impossible to keep children a whole day. In Nairobi alone, about 70 per cent of nursery schools are half-day. In addition a considerable number of children attending full-day nursery schools are half-day pupils. The time children spend in nursery schools differ and is dependent on the age of a child at the time

of entry. However, it seems that most of the children who attend, spend one or two years before going to primary school. Some of the pre-schools require pupils to attend four terms a year, but others are open for only three terms, just like primary schools.

The overall development of nursery schools is an outcome of many interacting factors. In the rural districts for instance, the nursery schools were introduced as part of community welfare mainly to meet nutritional, clinical and custodial needs of the children. Indeed as late as 1970 the Ministry of Housing and Social Services charged with the administrative responsibility over day care centres issued an authoritative handbook which articulated the objectives of day care centres as non-academic, non-teaching functions. But these centres are reported to be engaged in academic work. Indeed, partly due to pressure from parents and limited educational background of the teachers, these centres have become informal extensions of lower primary schools by both style and content. Herzog (1969)[5] in a survey of the parents of nursery school center children in four communities in Kenya found that a majority of parents of nursery school children vigorously favour academic instruction in the nursery schools. Follow-up studies by (Kabiru 1974[7]; Gakuru 1976[8]) also report a heavy concentration on academic activities in nursery schools.

In a recent study I found that nursery schools spend on average more time on academic work that on creative activities and free play irrespective of the fees charge per term. However, the low-cost nursery schools spend about twice the

Table I:

Time in Minutes that is spent in teaching various aspects of the curriculum by the cost category of Nursery Schools:

Type of Nursery Schools	*Academic*	*Creative*	*Free Play*	*No. of Cases*
Low-cost (Self-help)	124.29	61.07	54.64	14
Medium-cost	104.67	71.79	62.41	29
High-cost	100.36	96.79	46.07	14
All Nursery Schools	108.42	75.09	56.49	57
Extra-coefficient	0.36	0.49	.35	
Level of significance	$<.02$	$<.001$	$<.025$	

Source: Gakuru, O.N., Pre-School Education and access to Educational opportunities. Dept. of Sociology, University of Nairobi, 1979.

time spent in creative work to teach literacy and numeracy skills. The medium-cost schools spend only a third more or the time while the difference in the average time spent on academic and creative work in high-cost schools is negligible.

Commenting on self-help nursery schools in rural areas Krystall and Maleche (1976)[3] stress that although nursery schools are among the simplest self-help projects to plan and implement, their simplicity should not blind us to their significance for local parents who view them as an investment in their children's educational future, a way of ensuring success in future schooling.

The child-care function of pre-schooling cannot be ruled out altogether, but it is necessary to point out that ayah service in Kenya is cheap unlike in other countries where labour is expensive. A lot of families with children attending nursery schools especially in the urban areas also have ayahs at home. The availability of cheap domestic labour and other forms of child care makes the argument that pre-schools are serving educational aspirations in the society all the more convincing. Thus, while the child-care function is no doubt one of the explanatory factors, the development of nursery schools is largely a response by parents, communities, the government, welfare organisations and private enterprise to the high demand for education. This overall interest in pre-school education is illustrated for example by the extent to which the pre-school concept has been assimilated into the dominant developmental philosophy:

> *"Nursery school education is the foundation for the development of the person, the community and the nation. Education is the best investment that parents could offer their children. Parents should send their children to schools as it is through education that the child, of to-day would become a better leader of tomorrow. (The Standard, Tuesday, 7, September, 1976)*[4]
>
> *[4]This address by a senior government official to afund raising ceremony in aid of a self-help nursery school illustrates the importance that the government attaches to the development of pre-school education.*

The nursery schools in the rural areas are more or less homogeneous. They are self-help projects except a few private schools which serve the children from wealthy backgrounds in the former white highlands. The self-help nursery schools are partially completed or very poorly constructed buildings, mostly without doors and windows. Inside the classroom, the children either sit on forms or desks arranged in rows facing the front of the room. The teachers are poorly trained. In 1973, out of a total of 6,326 teachers in day care centres, 570 had been trained for one year, and another 1,400 had attended short courses lasting one, two, three or

six months at the most. Nearly all of these teachers are primary school leavers. We are thus witnessing a virtually undifferentiated stage in the development of nursery school education in the rural communities. This observation does not in any way imply that the rural community is undifferentiated. On the contrary, there are quite distinct social classes whose origin is largely based on the development of capitalism in Kenya, both in the rural districts and the urban centres.

In the urban centres the nursery school is an old feature. One of the earliest recorded nursery school was in Nairobi in 1942. This nursery school like many others started during the colonial period were primarily available for Europeans and hence located in urban centres. The Anglo-Saxon presence in ownership and management of nursery schools in Nairobi has continued to dominate the nursery education scene. The Asians have also developed their own schools. The Africans too have developed theirs through self-help and with assistance from church and welfare organizations. The nursery school reports are extremely poor. However, from the existing incomplete records out of about 492 recorded nursery schools in Nairobi, slightly more than half, 54.67 per cent, have either been managed or owned by whites, 23.4 per cent by Asians and the rest, mainly self-help, by Africans. Out of the total number of the recorded nursery schools, about 214, were in existence in 1976. The others have been closed for various reasons and at different points in time. Most of the nursery schools closed for the following reasons: owners returning to their mother countries, inability to meet the necessary requirements, intra-city migration, lack of children, and poor health for the proprietors.

There is no overall body to manage develop and supervise pre-school education both in the urban centres including Nairobi and in the rural areas. The day-dare centres are built by individual communities through the self-help effort sometimes with assistance from the government officers at the grassroot level. As indicated already, the majority of day care centres are found in the rural areas. The rest serve the slum communities in the urban centres. Each day nursery is under the care of a parent's committee. The two main responsibilities of the committee is to appoint, pay and supervise the teachers, and to ensure continued development of the school. Only very few day care centres get assistance from the local councils.

The lack of co-ordination, control and effective supervision of nursery schools has lead to spontaneity, heavy influence of parental educational aspirations, differentiated fees reflecting the unequal incomes among the social groups served by particular nursery schools and different pre-school experience that individual schools present to the children, hence the development and continued existence of a complex and differentiated pre-school education structure.

The Government involvement in the development of these centres can be traced to the early 1960s, mainly through the Ministries of Home Affairs, and Health. The Ministry of Education only intervened to prohibit academic instruction thus taking an inhibitive position but has not instituted supervisory mechanisms to ensure that the directive is observed. However, in 1972, the Ministry launched a pre-school education project meant to provide guideline for teacher training and preparation of relevant curriculum. From 1968 the Department of Social Services introduced a training programme for the day care teachers. However, by 1974, only 1935 out of more than 5,000 teachers were trained. The training emphasised non-academic functions of nursery schools but there is no inspection to ensure that the teachers adhere to the requirements. (K.I.E. 1978).[7] There is no indication that the government intends to be more involved in the development and supervision of nursery education than at present. Furthermore, there are limited financial resources and primary education takes the first priority (Development plan 1979 - 1983; pp.154 and 182).

In Nairobi and other urban centres most of the nursery schools belong to the local administration, church welfare institutions and communities through self-help committees. The rest are private nursery schools run as businesses. In Nairobi for example, there was a total of about 214 nursery schools in 1976. Out of this total, 78 were private, 70 self help and the rest service nursery schools.

Table 2:

Distribution of Pre-School Institutions in Nairobi by ownership in 1976.

Type of Ownership	*Total Number of Schools*	*Estimated Number of Children Enrolled*
Private	78	4,118
Service (City Council, Church) Welfare etc.	66	5,598
Self-help (Harambee)	70	5,079
Total	214	14,791

Source: Department of Health, Nairobi City Council Nursery School Inspectorate files.

The figures in table 2 above are an approximate only because the number of pre-schools in Nairobi does not remain constant. There is a continuous process of starting new schools and closing some of the existing schools. However, it is quite evident from table 2 that large numbers of nursery schools have been established both in the low and high income suburbs in the city. All the pre-schools in Nairobi except the self-help require a licence to operate. To qualify for the licence, a nursery school must meet certain physical, health and educational conditions that are defined by the local authority.

However, once a nursery school is licenced there is no supervision through-out the year by the Education Department. The only supervision are the occasional visits by a team of nurses from the Department of Health.

The links between Nursery and Primary Education

Although pre-school education has developed with minimum support from the Ministry of Education, its development has reached a critical stage that cannot be ignored anymore. Furthermore, it is now an integral sector of both the educational system and the wider society.

Nursery education differ in the type of primary schools entered by their graduates particularly in the urban areas where existing acute economic and cultural differentiation is reproduced in the educational sector. The nursery and primary sectors have three basic categories interlinked by the flow of children. The three categories are the low-cost, medium-cost, and high-cost educational sub-systems. The low-cost schools consist of nursery schools that charge termly fees of up-to about KSh.120/- that are linked with the schedule A primary schools. Most of the primary schools in this country are schedule A schools i.e. the former Colonial African Schools. Today these schools are still predominantly African in their intake but their students are from the poor families. However, there are newly rich families in the rural areas who send their children to the schedule A schools mainly because schooling facilities in the rural areas are less differentiated. The few educational opportunities available in the rural boarding school are pre-empted by the rich who are conscious of their social status.

The medium-cost schools consist of both the nursery and the primary schools that serve the lower middle class strata found mainly in the large urban centres. Most of the graduates from the medium-cost nursery schools go to the schedule B (former colonial Asian) and the schedule C (the former European) primary schools. In the colonial period, schedule C schools catered for the ruling class, the Europeans. To-day these schools still carry out this function but without the racial characteristics of the colonial past. Parents with children in these primary schools now pay amenity fees of upto KSh.650/- per year. In addition, there are other two types of private primary schools on top of the state schools described above. The first type belong to the Catholic Church while schools in the other category are a source of revenue for businessmen. The children who go to these two types of primary schools first attend the high-cost nursery schools charging not less than KSh.700/- per term. The private primary schools charge such high fees (ranging from KSh.2,500/- to KSh.17,000/- per year) that only the very rich can afford.

The three educational sub-systems differ in other important ways. First, the distribution of teachers of different grades is in favour of the elite schools. Secondly, there are hardly any drop-outs from the expensive schools, where children perform particularly well in the certificate of Primary Education Examination (C.P.E.) that is used as a selection device for entry into secondary schools. Entry into well paid jobs in Kenya is largely based on academic attainment. Therefore, the children from the wealthy backgrounds have the privilege of a guaranteed educational mobility which legitimises the future leadership positions that they will occupy in the society.

The Implications for Equity and Curriculum Development

A. Equity

The development and structure of both the nursery and primary education reflects the existence of the in-equality among the different social groups. For example, virtually all the children who are born in Mathare Valley (a slum community in Nairobi), go to the low-cost self-help nursery schools and later to the poor quality neighbourhood schedule A primary schools. But the children born in the wealthy families go to the costly schools that are found in the exclusive suburbs in the city. Although there is competition for vacancies in all the educational sub-systems, all the elite families are able to place their children in the schools of their choice. On the contrary, not all the poor are able to send their children to school due to the in adequate provision of primary school facilities. This lack of facilities is illustrated by the fact that some communities in urban areas such as Mathare Valley and Kariobangi have established self-help primary schools to cater for the children who are not admitted into the state schools. In brief, in present day Kenya, there are schools for the poor and the schools for the rich.

B. Curriculum Development

About a quarter of all the primary school entrants have nursery school experience. No doubt, these children have an advantage over the others at least in the early years of primary education. First, pre-school graduates enter primary schools able to write numbers and letters, thus making it easy for the standard 1 teacher to move quickly into teaching the skills of word construction, reading and mathematical manipulations. But for the children lacking pre-school experience, school learning must start from the very beginning. These differences are more acute in the low-cost primary schools than in the expensive elite schools since in the latter nearly all the children have pre-school experience. In response to the differences in the child preparation in academic skills, children from the pre-school units that are attached to the low-cost primary schools constitute a stream of their own. Once the pre-school children are identified as better prepared for primary education the teachers have been found to behave in a way that reinforces the initial differences.

Primary school entrants also differ in the use of language. These are three different language uses both at home and in nursery schools. First, there is the language used by the ruling class. There are now, unlike in 1963 when Kenya became independent Black Kenyan children who are born in families that use English as a mother tongue. These children attend multi-racial nursery schools with teachers qualified enough to understand the meaning of the linear concepts such as "development of the whole child", "real-life experiences" etc., developed in the progressive educational movement. Besides, these teachers use English as mother tongue. The other type of language use corresponds with a middle class background that is culturally uncertain in the type of the language that children should be encouraged to learn. This group buys the support of the English Medium Nursery Schools at the earliest possible time so as to prepare their children for the good quality English medium primary schools. According to my judgement this is the social group that is benefiting the most from the nursery education. The children of this upwardly mobile group go to nursery schools that are language melting pots whereby the children are socialised from the use of vernaculars and Swahili into the use of English. The early masterly over the English language is an invaluable resource since this is the language that is solely rewarded in the educational system and to a large extent in the occupational structure in Kenya.

The children from the non-English users' background are the majority and are found both in the rural and urban areas. These children can only speak their vernacular languages in the rural areas and Swahili in the towns at the time of starting primary education. These different uses of language, present a major obstacle to curriculum developers and efforts to equalise the educational opportunities. There are indications that the curriculum will be progressively integrated with the local environment including the use of language in schools. However, this will mean continued English medium for the ruling class and use of vernaculars by the other social groups.

Policy Suggestions

(a) The government should co-ordinate and supervise all the nursery schools. It should also provide the guidelines into the amount of fees parents may pay, standardise the educational content including the use of language and the training of nursery school teachers.

(b) So far, the state entrusts mainly the parents and nursery schools with the educational and socialisation duties of the child. But the only example of nursery school management available locally is the Western model: its literature such as the Lady Bird Books that depict the 18th century England and the ryhmes and songs loaded with the mannerisms of the affluent. This orientation that emphasises the Anglo-Saxon culture of the affluent alienates the child from the Kenya national culture of majority. Therefore, there is

an urgent need to produce relevant educational materials that encourage children to identify themselves as Kenyan nationals.

(c) But it is not possible as we have seen, to give every child an equal opportunity to develop the personal potential; intellectual, creative etc. unless there is an equitable distribution of the material wealth and services. It is only after the poor are liberated from the dehumanising struggle to subsist that their human potential can be realised.

(d) The language policy should be reviewed. The existing approach to use of language whereby English is the medium of instruction penalises the children from the poor families.

Ladies and Gentlemen what I have told you this morning might have sounded like a fiction story about the development and structure of education in an imaginary world. But there is some truth in it that is based on research. In any case, I am not very imaginative because I am a product of an educational system that discourages creativity by rewarding cramming for examinations that are the only perceivable channel for entry into the world of material affluence and Western life styles.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Gakuru O.N.	"Pre-School Education" Kenya Education Review Vol.3 No.2 1976.
Kenya Institute of Education	A Report of Pre-School Education Project, 1978.
Kenya	Kenya Population Census 1969. Nairobi 1970.
Kenya	Integrated Rural Survey, 1974 - 78, Central Bureau of Statistics, Nairobi 1977.
Herzog, J.	A Survey of the Parents of Nursery Centre Children in Four Communities in Kenya. Social Science Conference. University of Nairobi 1969.
Krystall, A. (et al)	The Day Care Programme: Part of Kenya's National Education Programme. Bureau of Education Research. University of Nairobi 1975.
Kenya Institute of Education	(See footnote 2 above)
Kenya	The Development Plan 1979 - 1983. Government Printer, Nairobi 1979.

THE STATUS OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN LIBERIA

Josephine Greaves Badio
Department of Instruction
Ministry of Education
Monrovia, Liberia, R.L.

Socio-Economic Background

Liberia is located on the Southern edge of Africa's Western bulge. It has a surface of 43,000 square miles consisting of low-lying terrain which in coastal areas is partially swampy. Population is about 1.5 million (29) per square mile) of whom 1.1 million were in rural and 0.4 million in urban area. The rate of population growth is 2.8% per annum. Approximately 48% of the population is under fifteen (15) years of age. The population is predominately rural (70%) There are two seasons in Liberia - Rainy season and dry season. The country is divided into 15 political and administrative units headed by Superintendents. These include nine countries and six territories. The territories fall within the jurisdiction of four of the countries as autonomous units. Montserrado County has the territories of Marshall, Bomi and Gibi. Grand Bassa County includes the Territory of Revercess; Kru Coast Territory falls under Maryland County, while Sasstown Territory is under Sinoe County.

In terms of active participation of the population, Liberia is basically an agricultural country since 70% of its inhabitants depend on the land for a livelihood. Some agricultural commodities produced by the traditional farmers for export are rice, coffee, cocoa and palm kernels. As far as commercial agriculture is concerned, rubber is the leading commodity. It is produced by seven foreign-owned concessions as well as several Liberian Farmers who sell their products to the concessions for processing and export. Forestry, particularly logging, is also a substantial contributor to the economy. About 9% of the G.D.P. (Government Development Program) is attributed to the rubber industry and forestry contributes about 3% of the G.D.P. In terms of national income, iron ore mining is the major economic activity in the country. There were four companies in operation but the oldest, the Liberian Mining Company in Bomi Hills, phased out in June, 1977.

Trade and personal services (hotels and restaurants) also contributed significantly to the money economy. In 1974 they accounted for 13.7% of the GDP. The value added came from such activities as manufacturing, public utilities, construction, transport and other services.

As a result of the insufficient public funding for education, the financial burden placed on parents who send their children to school is very heavy. Foreign funding to education has increased steadily over the past four years - from $2.4 million in 1973 to 4.5 million in 1976/77.

The educational program is administered through the countries and territories each of which is divided into school districts corresponding roughly to the political district. The City of Monrovia, however, is administered as a semi-autonomous school district called the Monrovia Consolidated School System (MCSS). It was established in 1962 as an experiment in educational decentralization. The recent population Census (1974) estimates the literacy rate of Liberia to be 21.0% for the age group 10 years and over compared with the 1962 estimate of 8.9%

Concept of Early Childhood Education in Liberia

In Liberia pre-primary education includes two categories of pupils:

(a) Children below the age of six in organized educational programs,

(b) School age children without a knowledge of English, the medium of instruction in the school system, who are generally placed in special classes to learn the language.

However, classes for the second group of pupils are more often attached to elementary schools. These pre-grade classes, known by varying names as primers, ABC, early childhood and sometimes incorrectly kindergarten, run from one to four or five years. Kindergarten is the school situation where many children leave the home for the first time and associate with others outside their immediate neighbourhood, as well as to organized learning conditions. Consequently, the relationship between home and school and their interdependence is greater at this period than is likely to be true at any higher level of education.

According to the long range plan (1978/1990), elementary education includes pre-grade classes to grade six. It is extremely difficult to collect accurate statistics on pre-primary classes (1) the usual age-grade structure in one school system where children of varied ages grouped in the same classroom for instruction (2) until recently, the lack of a definite policy on pre-primary education or of the structure of elementary education - whether or not

kindergarten and/or pre-grade classes should be a pre-requisite for entry to grade one. Because of the peculiar nature in which the Liberian School has evolved over the past century, where many children come to school at late ages and are taught together in the same classroom with younger pupils, due to the chronic shortage of qualified teachers, the aims of elementary education in Liberia have been conceptualized to suit the realities of the situation. The term "Elementary Education" when used in this Plan (1978/90), include Pre-grade classes (for school-age children who enter school without an adequate knowledge of English) to grade six. It may contain ages ranging from five years to twenty, thus covering three developmental stages of the human life - childhood, adolescence and early adulthood.

Brief History of Early Childhood Education in Liberia

These days there is greater emphasis on Pre-Primary or early childhood education in Liberia than in previous years. Early Childhood Education in Liberia dates as far back as before the coming of the early settlers (19th century). The children then got their education in the homes by:

(a) Sitting round the firehearth listening to the older folks as they told stories and riddles

(b) Singing songs

(c) Beating drums - dancing and

(d) Attending either Poro or Sande Society.

Upon the arrival of the settlers, early childhood education in Liberia took on different form. The settlers sending interested persons abroad for training in Early Childhood Education. First, for such a priviledge was Mrs. Elsie George. After her training, Mrs. George established a school and called it Kindergarten. This program gradually extended to the other four counties (Since, Bassa, Cape Mount and Maryland). Most of the pre-primary grade teachers were very poorly qualified and certificated which resulted in a very poor quality performance. Only a very small portion of Kindergarten teachers in the system, have had formal training in Kindergarten Education. No local facility existed for training Kindergarten teachers some of those who have been trained in Israel and the United States left the program for more attractive positions.

The past Childhood Curricula were unsuitable for a vast number of Liberian pupils particularly the rural children. There were no suitable instructional materials such as Audio-Visual Aids, teachers handbooks and the like. Although in the 1970s valuable work was done by the syllabus writing project in preparing the first drafts of the Primary School

Syllabi and laying the foundations for carrying the work forward, yet some important gaps were left uncovered. There was no coordination committee to interrelate the content of different subjects and to support the methods and organization for the implementation of the curriculum. Above all, there was no institutional framework particularly for early childhood education.

Present Innovations of Early Childhood Education in Liberia

Since the first and foremost responsibility of Education System is to the students, priority of necessity must be given to those facts that contribute to the development of the students so that they will improve their own lives and contribute to the improvement of the society.

Presently, the curriculum center is developing the Kindergarten Curriculum through an integrated approach: Learning in the content areas is restricted and traditional, where as the life of a child is not divided in watertight experiences. It is therefore realized that learning be promoted through an integrated approach. For this purpose, interrelated activities are to be organized around meaningful learning, themes, ideas, and centers. It is planned that the new curriculum for Early Childhood Education have the requisite qualities such as the following:

(a) Be in line with the national goals and priorities especially in regard to the education and welfare of the citizenry and human resources development.

(b) Be an integral part of the entire National School Curriculum and educational ladder.

(c) Provide an appropriate and enriched learning environment, not ordinarily accessible to children in the home or community.

(d) Be flexible and dynamic within an over-all national framework to meet the changing needs of children's communities, localities and environments.

(e) Provide the base for a meaningful learning programs, rich and varied to maximise learning opportunities for socialization, discovery, concept - building, exploration and development interests, ideas and skills.

In order for the plan to be realistic, teachers are expected to produce simple materials. The Materials Center in Monrovia and those established in the various countries are preparing suitable audio and printed materials appropriate for Kindergarten instruction such as charts, toys, puzzles, songbooks, colouring books, alphabet books, and number cards.

Objectives of Early Childhood Education in Liberia

Based on the background stated in the concept of Early Childhood Education, the main objectives of Early Childhood Education in Liberia according to the Long Range Plan (1978/1990) are:

(a) To develop in the child the attitude of socialization and interraction with others,

(b) To stimulate the child to perceive and understand the world about him and,

(c) To develop in the child basic communication skills of listening, speaking, rudiments of reading and writing and to introduce number concepts.

(d) To provide a suitable social climate conductive to sound emotional development

(e) To afford the child the opportunity of association with children of varied social, economic and cultural backgrounds, thus enabling him to cultivate positive attitudes toward individual and group performances.

(f) To expose the child to experiences which could reveal his natural interests and aptitudes.

(g) To provide appropriate and enriched learning environment.

(h) To assist in early discovery of physical and mental weaknesses or deficiencies so that remedial steps may be taken before the child enters into competitive phases of school and society.

All of these experiences are only provided through the use of a variety of toys, models, pictures, and puzzles.

Problems Hindering Effective Operation of Early Childhood Education

Presently in Liberia, Early Childhood Education is faced with several problems such as:

(a) Inadequacy of Kindergarten/Pre-Primary buildings: there continues to exist the problem of inadequacy of space to accommodate the great influx of students coming into the program annually.

(b) A complete lack of recreational facilities.

(c) Lack of adequate furniture.

(d) Poorly qualified teaching staff.

(e) Illegal opening of pre-primary grade programs by unqualified persons

(f) Inadequate school-lunch facilities

(g) The irrelevance of curriculum and instructional materials.

(h) A rapid increase in enrolment and a tremendous shortage of physical financial and human resources to cope with such growth.

Improvement of the Existing Early Childhood Education in Liberia

The first improvement will be to separate the normal pre-school children from the age pupils. Children six years old and older who come to school for the first time without the pre-requisities for grade one instruction will be placed in an accelerated remedial pre-grade class. The Kindergarten Programe will be limited only to one year instruction. It will include children five years old but not more than seven years of age.

The public Kindergarten with independent administration and/or in separate physical facilities, such as the B.W. Payne Kindergarten in Monrovia, will be re-organized to adhere to the one year program. Selected ones of them will be strengthened and used chiefly for demonstration and as centers of research and innovation.

In the area of instructional materials, Kindergarten teachers will be expected to produce simple materials, however, the Materials Center in Monrovia and those to be established in the various countries will prepare suitable audio and printed materials appropriate for Kindergarten instruction such as:

(a) charts
(b) toys
(c) puzzles
(d) colouring books
(f) songbooks
(g) alphabet books
(h) number cards

Where more difficult or expensive techniques are required the Central Printing and Production Unit in the Ministry of Education will undertake the production.

The expansion of the Kindergarten Program will be very modest. Considering the anticipated severe scarcity of Educational resources of all types, as evidenced by the dwindling of Education's share of the national budget as well as foreign assistance, particularly for the formal aspect of basic education. During the Plan Period (1978/90), a maximum of 20 Kindergartens will be established in public sector. These Kindergartens will not be permitted to operate as separate schools; they will be attached to elementary schools.

Only five years old will be required to start in Kindergarten all children older than age five will start directly in grade one.

The pre-grade curriculum as a remedial program, will consist of modification of that in the first grade. It will make provision for the pupil to acquire the rudimentary skills which begin with the development of listening, understanding and speaking then moving into the skills of writing and reading.

Although very little attention has been given to early Childhood Education during the past years, it is gratifying to note that throughout Liberia there continues to be a keen awareness of the importance of pre-primary education. This awareness has led to several self-help community pre-primary education projects throughout the nine counties and territories. Pre-primary facilities are now improved partly, and the curriculum will soon be up-graded and made more relevant to the Pre-grade and Kindergarten Programmes.

REFERENCES

Bright, Edith — The Kindergarten Curriculum, Ministry of Education, Monrovia, Liberia May 18, 1976.

Caine, Lydia Zoe — Kindergarten Experiences in Living and Learning, Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No.1680, 1971.

Williams, Felicia — Ministry of Education Newsletter January 4, 1979.

The Urgency of Curriculum Revision, Ministry of Education R.L.

The National Education Plan 1978 - 1990, Ministry of Education, Monrovia, Liberia.

World Bank estimates "Pre-Appraisal Report for a Second Education Project: Liberia", September 1975, GOL Budgets, 1975 and 1976/77.

THE STATE OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA A CASE STUDY

Katongo A. Chali
Curriculum Development Centre
Lusaka, Zambia.

Introduction

In tackling this theme, an attempt has been made to reflect on:-

(i) Political Philosophy of the country

(ii) Pre-School and Early Formal Education Phase

(iii) Geographical Structure of Educational Administration.

Political Context

The political philosophy of the country is the ZAMBIAN HUMANISM. This ideology propounds that, in Zambia Society, Man shall be the Centre of all human endeavour and activities. It attempts to rid the Zambian society of vice like exploitation of one man by another, nepotism, corruption etc. It advocates the promotion of as much as possible a CLASS - LESS society. It therefore forms the retionale for the following policies which have been implemented:

(i) Nationalisation of the country's main industries and companies. The government controls 51% share in major means of economy.

(ii) Land Reforms began with the confiscation of land from foreign land - lords - to the prevention of land ownership by non-Zambians. The state holds land in trust for the Zambian society and leases it to Zambian individuals for a period of 99 years subject to renewal of ownership.

(iii) Free medical services which followed the abolition of fee-paying.

(iv) Free Education which followed the abolition of fee-paying schools.

These policies are meant to lift the average Zambian from colonial degradation and inculcate the sense of self-dignity, self responsibility and self reliance.

The isolated private schools and medical practitioners are subjected to government - control for the purpose of regulating fees and profits.

This is the political climate in which pre-school and Early Formal Education is to be considered.

Pre-School Education

Pre-School Education began to take shape in the late 1940s mostly along the urban areas. Mine and industrial companies organised Welfare Clubs. Some churches too offered these facilities. However, the activities and programmes offered in these institutions promoted more physical development than intellectual and social growth. Later around 1950s Local Authorities started to set up additional pre-school institutions. Parallel to these developments, European individuals and private groups established separate nurseries and pre-schools for their children. In isolated cases few black children were accepted in these institutions. In most of these institutions the pre-school curriculum had expanded to include: Writing, Reading and Arithmetic.

This situation continued for quite some time even after Zambia had achieved its independence. It is not until 1972 that the Zambia Pre-School Association was formed. Among some of its objectives are:-

(i) formulate pre-school education policy

(ii) plan for pre-school personnel training programmes

(iii) formulate guidelines and standards for the management and organisation of pre-school institutions.

In addition, the Ministry of Education was charged with a responsibility to control pre-school education and to allocate annual grant for some of the programmes.

Recognising the significance of pre-school education in the life of the Zambian child, both the Pre-School Association and the Ministry of Education made far-reaching recommendations during the Educational Reform Exercise. These are now enshrined in the EDUCATIONAL REFORM DOCUMENT in Chapter 12.

Government Policy on Pre-School Education

With effect from 1977 the Government's pre-school education policies were outlined for implementation. Again, information of a more detailed nature is contained in chapter 12 of the Educational Reform. Consequently outlined below are highlights from the chapter in question.

(i) Pre-School institutions cater for children below the school-going age and are not substitutes for full-time education; as such no child over 7 years of age should be enrolled in any of these institutions.

(ii) Due to a variety of interpretations of the functions of pre-school and the existence of a number of these institutions for different age groups below school-going age, a co-ordinating and policy body was necessited.

(iii) Consequently Education Policies for example forbid the use of any of these institutions for the formal learning practices; the policy recommends such institutions wishing to engage in formal teaching to apply to the Ministry of Education for status as registered private primary schools. As a matter of fact pre-school propriators are advised not to offer systematic instructions, methods and curriculum in these institutions.

(iv) A clear distinction has been made between INFANT-DAY-CARE Centres and Pre-Schools.

(v) Government Policy encourages the provision and establishment of as many pre-school as possible.

Other areas identified and formulated are the aims and objectives of pre-school education; Materials and equipment; organization and administration of pre-schools.

One other point is the role of the Ministry of Education in Pre-School Education. This has been determined as:-

(i) Training of pre-school teachers and supervisors,

(ii) Providing professional and legal guidance,

(iii) Curriculum Specialists, pre-school teachers and supervisors shall together develop and design curriculum materials.

(iv) The Ministry shall undertake the amendments of the Education Act in order to accommodate statutory status of pre-school education.

Meanshile, the pre-school association has been charged with the responsibility of disseminating the activities of pre-school education to all parts of the rural areas.

Formal Education Grades I - IV

English Medium

The introduction and adoption of English Language both as a medium of instruction and as a school subject marked the first step in the country's curricular innovations. Zambia after becoming an independent state realised the inadequacy of the colonial system of education. The first subject to receive attention of redressing was English Language. After the government had adopted English as medium of instruction, supporting innovations for the new approach had inevitably to be mounted in the preparation of instructional materials, teachers and methodology. In 1966 there were only a few sample English medium classes. By 1969 the new approach had spread and had been adopted wide, as a government policy.

The medium of instruction in our experience and in other African experiences is a political decision. However, it does raise some implications for a curriculum developer, the parent and more so for the child as a learner.

As it were, this innovation gave added impetus to the reconstruction of the entire primary and secondary school curricula. The nation realized, the need for an authentic curriculum. The educational system inherited from colonial era was irrelevant and unsuitable for the nation. Zambia thus needed a curriculum which would reflect its conditions, its environment and aspiration. After a feasibility study into the conditions necessary for the setting up of a curriculum development, the work started on a complete reappraisal of primary education and gradually from 1969, the English Medium Centre was transformed into the curriculum development centre.

Zambia Primary Courses

The development of indigenous primary courses marks the second stage in curriculum reform. The course is founded on basic curriculum development principles.

National goals of Education (refer to Educational Reform).

These are reflected in the Educational Reform Document and in subject syllabuses. They have been derived from political statements on education. Among other sources of these learning needs (objectives) are: Learners' interest and preferences, parents preferences, professional and educationists views on education. Since statements on education from these sources are broad and general they are not at that stage good enough for learning purposes. The need to narrow them down into specific subject areas gave rise to the preparation of subject syllabuses.

The second principle is the need to translate learning objectives into learning experiences. This has resulted in the development of subject matter or content as manifested in pupils handbooks. Refer to Handbooks.

These curriculum instructional materials should be seen more as means to an end. They constitute the required vehicles for transmitting the intended goals of education.

The manner or approach used to put across learning experiences call for methodology, which in this context is the third principle. In the Zambian curriculum context, these have taken the form of teaching notes, supplementary booklets, charts, tables and apparatus. Although the curriculum development materials and courses form the core resources, teachers are advised to devise their own strategies and teaching alternatives.

The need to assess how effectively the objectives have been transmitted through pupils and teachers' handbooks calls for the final principle - EVALUATION.

To this effect, a variety of evaluation instruments have been designed:- (Refer to instruments).

(i) Curriculum Evaluation for Zambia

(ii) Introduction to teachers

(iii) Evaluation Criteria for C.D.C.* instructional materials covering:

  (a) Teachers notes

  (b) Pupils Materials

  (c) Reference Materials

(iv) How to evaluate individual lessons - slightly different from the Kenya Institute of Education Approach.

(v) Several classroom inventories and questionnaires.

Having considered the cardinal curriculum principles and having seen examples of how they are translated, the real issue is:

(i) What are the moral and philosophical implications for developing an urban or rural oriented curriculum?

(ii) Is it possible and practicable to produce a balanced diet curriculum for the two environments?

(iii) Could it be a question of priority and emphasis perhaps?

*C.D.C. means Curriculum Development Centre.

However, the following Zambian Primary Courses have been developed:

(i) English Language Grade I - VII

(ii) Seven Zambian Languages: Grades I - V

(iii) Mathematics: grades I - VII

(iv) Religious Education: Grades I - VII

(v) Social Studies: Grades III - VII

(vi) Home Economics: Grades G - VI

(vii) Environmental Science: Grades V - VII

(viii) Practical Subjects - Syllabus stage

(ix) Music - Syllabus stage.

While accepting the fact that these courses and materials have been developed, the concern should be:

(i) What is the quality of content of these courses?

(ii) What quality of learning takes places in classes against the background of PUPIL-TEACHER ratio, the availability of curriculum materials and what can be termed as EXAMINATION FEVER?

Research

The need to collect, analysize and synthesize curriculum data for the preparation of learning/teaching experiences as reflected in the publications already referred to, requires a certain amount of research. Some of this research may be informal or formal, basic or applied. The objective is clear and that is that the views held about the belief in education need to be validated by the evidence of research. Principles, concepts, hypothesis and theorem's need justification. To this end the centre has established links with the research unit of the University of Zambia.

Just as evaluation is responsible, for, among other functions quality control research is the source of data and evidence to justify the content of the curriculum.

However, questions arise from this need for research:

(i) are there enough African based research data?

(ii) What contributions have African psychologists and researchers made to provide authentic data?

Organisation and Administration of Curriculum Development Efforts

The system used is highly centralised, it is also as of now dependent on PACKAGE content or structured curricula. However, there are supporting agencies who help decentralize the efforts. There are nine Educational Regions as against ten provinces.

In each of these regions are:

(i) Chief Education Officer (1)

(ii) Regional Inspector (1)

(iii) Subject Inspectors as many as the school subjects offered at primary and secondary.

(iv) District Education Officer - as many as are districts in each province (5 - 12).

These are the link men for educational administration and implementation. The appended map on Educational Administration illustrates the arrangement.

In conclusion, it must be noted that as the theme of the workshop suggest its own separate emphasis: Pre-School and Early Childhood Education, there is a danger of compartimentalising sections and levels of education.

This has implication for planning. Rather than see it as:-

(i) Pre-School

(ii) Elementary

(iii) Primary

(iv) Secondary (Junior and Senior)

the planning can only make sense if this is seen as contributing to and very much part of a continuous phase. It is for this reason that Zambia has adopted 9 years Basic Education as one complete phase, with emphasis on both academic and practical (vocational) skills.

EARLY CHILDHOOD AND BASIC EDUCATION IN GHANA

A.K. Menka
Curriculum Development Centre
Accra, Ghana.

Ghana

Ghana is a small tropical country in West Africa with an estimated population of 10 million people living in an area of 92,000 sq. miles (239,000 Km^2). The majority of the people live in the rural areas but a fair number of large urban centres can be found in the southern half of the country especially. Like many other developing countries, Ghana has a high rate of population growth which is estimated at about 3.0% per annum. According to the last census held in 1970 those aged 18 and below formed more than half of the total population.[1] This is the population pattern for which basic education must be provided. As a former British colony the education system has been very much influenced by the British; and English being the official language of the country it commands an important place in the school curriculum.

National Policy and Educational Objectives:

In preparation for political independence an Accelerated Development Programme in Education was launched in 1952 aimed at producing a large number of trained local manpower that would be involved not only at the managerial level in the administration of the country but also in providing middle level personnel for the various services that would be necessary. Another major step which considerably influenced the trend of education was the 1961 Education Act which stipulated, among other things, that all children of school going age i.e. 6 years should enter school and have free access to basic education. As a result of this there was an explosion in school population, especially at the first cycle level during the 1960s and the results of this are still being felt today and now not at only the first cycle level but more so at the second cycle level. The 1961 Education Act provides for a Free Textbooks Scheme whereby the state supplies basic textbooks and stationery to every child at the first cycle level for which parents contribute only a nominal textbooks fee. Tuition is entirely free throughout the entire education system.

The New Structure and Content of Education

In February 1974 the Government approved a comprehensive plan involving changes in the structure of the education system as well as changes in the curricular offerings at both first and second cycle levels of education. The New Structure and Content of Education provides that "Before beginning formal education (at the age of 6) every child should have between 18 - 24 months of preparation and pre-disposition,[2] to formal education. After the kindergarten stage there is a 6 year primary school course to be followed by a 3-year junior secondary school course. The end of the junior secondary school course is the first terminal point in the new school system. This means a 9-year basic education for all children which is free and nominally compulsory.

After this first cycle, the plan provides for a second cycle level covering 2 years senior secondary for the more capable of the junior secondary school graduates which is the second terminal points in the education system. The very few who will pursue university education will need to do a further 2-year senior secondary to prepare themselves for university work or its equivalent training to tertiary institutions. This New Structure and Content of Education was introduced in September 1974 and the first batch of children admitted into the first grade to begin the scheme are due to pass out from the 6-year primary school course, in August 1980 to enter the first year of the 3-year junior secondary school course in September 1980.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, these three government legislations or policy decisions i.e. the accelerated Development Programme in Education, the 1961 Education Act and the New Structure and Content of Education are the three main national government directives that have blazed the way for democratization of basic education in Ghana during the past 27 years. Now how have these policy decisions affected the provision of basic education?

Pre-School Education

A Nursery and Kindergarten Unit was first established within the Ministry of Education in 1965 to be responsible for the organisation and supervision of pre-school education in the country. Before then pre-school education had been in the hands of individuals and private agencies, especially the churches. Government at this level had been almost non-existent except in special cases like the establishment of Achimota College when a small number of 4 to 6 year old boys was enrolled as foundation pupils to start the kindergarten section of the institution. The approval of the New Structure and content of Education gave the Nursery Unit great boost since, as I have already stated, this new policy directed

that every child should have kindergarten experience before starting formal education at the age of 6 years. New and permanent accommodation designed for the Unit was completed and occupied by the Unit in November 1974. The new buildings provided facilities for a model nursery school for three year old children in addition to the main facilities provided for the older children of 4-6 years old. There is also Training Department where pre-school teachers, organisers and proprietors can be trained. The aims and objectives of Kindergarten Education, as stated in the document on the New Structure and Content of Education are:

(i) to provide opportunities for the overall personal development of the child through individual play and group activities,

(ii) to pre-dispose the child to conditions of formal education in order to accelerate the learning process during formal schooling.[3]

Promotion of Pre-School Education

When the Nursery and Kindergarten Unit was established in 1965 it was charged with the responsibility for promoting pre-school education throughout the country. The Unit is therefore concerned with the establishment and development of kindergarten and nursery-schools. Following the example of the national model nursery school in Accra, the Unit has encouraged all regional centres to open model schools to set the standard for private organisations and individuals interested in pre-school education to emulate. Owing to limited financial resources Government cannot provide all the towns and villages with pre-school facilities. Government therefore encourages and supports private initiative in this direction. In fact individual citizens and private organizations, especially the churches and village communities are the providers of facilities for pre-school education at present in most cases. A number of teacher training colleges have also adopted a number of pre-schools for child study work by their students.

Training and Supervision

The staff of the Nursery and Kindergarten Unit are to be found in each region working as nursery school organisers. Their duty is to visit both private and public nursery and Kindergarten classes to offer professional help and guidance to the staff and proprietors of these institutions. They encourage the staff to organise Open Days and Exhibitions of children's work to generate public awareness and interest in pre-school education. At the regional level a Pre-School Week is celebrated by some regions during which symposia and children's variety shows are held to portray the importance of and the need for childhood education.

In some places groups of parents have come together to establish community nursery schools and there is a National Association of Nursery School Proprietors. Some of the proprietors are individuals who provide this service for a fee. The staff of the Nursery Unit organise training courses for the teachers, attendants and proprietors of these schools. The courses range from a day's seminar for proprietors to three-month intensive courses for the teachers. Government also releases qualified teachers on secondment to some of the private schools when this is found necessary. By the end of the 1977/78 school year there were over 1400 Kindergarten/nursery schools in the country with 76 organisers (i.e. officers/teachers in pre-school administration) who provide supervisory service. The emphasis is on private participation with government support through training of personnel, supervision and inspection.

Activities:

The basis of pre-school work is child-centred repetitive activity. The children go through a number of playful activities as individuals or in groups. These activities promote concept development through language, action, pictures etc. Singing, poetry recitals, counting through games and drawing are common activities that the children perform. A variety of equipment is provided physical activities like running with hoops, skipping with ropes, climbing, jumping, sliding and playing with balls. These are daily activities that help the children in physical and personality development.

Primary School Education

Formal education begins at the age of 6 years when the child enters class 1 to go through a 6-year primary school course. The aims and objectives of the primary school course are spelt out in detail in the booklet on the New Structure and Content of Education. In brief the primary school course is to develop in the children the skills of numeracy, literacy and socialization not to forget the skills of inquiry and creativity. In addition to these all the desirable attitudes that promote the total and balanced development of children are aims that should guide the teacher.

Course Content:

The medium of instruction during the first three years is usually the local language of the area in which the school is located. There is a gradual change starting from class 4 i.e. the fourth year in school. English is taught as a subject from the first year at school. Apart from language work (both English and Ghanaian Languages) mathematics, elementary science, social studies, religion, music, physical education etc., are taught. The curriculum is centralised, like the general educational administration, but the teachers are encouraged to make local changes that would make the

lessons meaningful to their pupils. Officers called subjects organisers are at hand in every region and their duty is not to inspect and report on the teachers' work but to work with them and improve their effectiveness. Through a free Textbooks Scheme the children are supplied the core textbooks and stionery and their parents pay a token textbooks fee of $3.00 per head per year. The Curriculum Division has responsibility for recommending suitable book for each grade level. It is also the function of the Division to produce manuscripts for publication as textbooks. This it does by organizing writing workshops to which selected teachers and officers are invited as panel members.

Statistics:

In the 1977/78 academic year there were 7229 primary schools in Ghana with over 1,246,000 pupils made up of 702,700 boys and 543,300 girls. This means that there are slightly fewer girls in school than boys since the national population distribution by sex for this age group is about 1:1. The total number of teachers in primary schools for the same year was 45,000 of whom 35% were untrained.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, this very briefly put is the picture of early childhood education in Ghana as it is at present. But to provide a more complete picture of basic education, which extends beyond the 6-year primary school course, I should say something about the middle school and junior secondary school systems in Ghana.

Middle School/Junior Secondary School Education

Before 1974 the structure of the education system for basic education was a 6-year primary school course followed by a 4-year middle school course. This 10-year basic education is considered too long, even though pupils who go on to secondary schools leave the middle school in course of the first three years as and when they pass the highly competitive Common Entrance Selection Examination for admission into secondary school. With the introduction of the New Structure and Content of Education, the middle school is now to be gradually replaced by a 3-year junior secondary school course. This is open to every child, and in a way, should eventually lead to secondary school education for every child. Apart from the reduction in the length of basic education by one year, a more significant aspect of the change is the emphasis to be placed on the development of practical skills. The main difference between the existing middle school and the new junior secondary school is therefore to be found in the contents of curricula offerings. Democratization of education should not only mean <u>access</u> to education but should also ensure <u>success</u> in education. By the old system if a child does not make it to a secondary school then he is regarded as a failure. But the old system caters more for the 6th Form and university bound type of pupils than for the majority of the pupils who will never go to a university anyway.

Course Content:

Both the middle school and the junior secondary school offer courses covering the 3 Rs and such subjects as general science, social studies, cultural studies etc., but in the middle school the attention paid to the developments of practical skills is casual. In the junior secondary school course the development of practical skills is a vital component of the programmes to be followed. A cardinal point in the New Structure and Content of Education, in fact, I should say the main difference between the old and new curricular offerings is the strong emphasis that is to be laid on the acquisition of practical skills during the 3-year junior secondary school course. This stress on pre-disposing the pupils to practical skills is an essential element in all the formal education to be provided throughout pre-university education. In pursuant of this emphasis on pre-disposing the pupils to vocational skills, every student at the junior secondary school stage is expected to take two courses in any area of technical/vocational/business education. This involves spending one full day every week in a workshop, or in some vocation training activity, throughout the 3-year course. For the past ten years some attempts has been mande through the continuation School Programme in a number of middle schools to provide this kind of pre-disposition. It is now time to move more decisively in this direction.

In preparation for the introduction of the junior secondary school programme 9 such schools were started on trial basis in 1976, 7 others were added in September 1977 and now there are 90 junior secondary schools in the country. The initial idea was to use the experiences gained from these schools to prepare more adequately for converting all the existing middle schools into junior secondary schools in September 1980. For this reason, the 7 first batch of junior schools are referred to as "experimental junior secondary schools. From the three years' experience it is obvious that the country cannot afford the huge sum of money that is required to convert and equip all the middle schools at the same time. It has therefore been decided that the conversion of existing middle schools into junior secondary schools should be done in phase covering several years.

In addition to the traditional academic subjects each student pursues courses in at least two vocational subjects. The subjects taught in each school are a reflection of the common trades/vocations that are practiced in the town/village where the school is located. The more popular courses in the 90 existing junior secondary schools are agriculture, woodwork, masonry, technical drawing, pottery, dressmaking, tailoring, catering and commercial training.

Examinations and Statistics:

Final external examinations have a strong influence on what teachers and students devote classroom attention to. It is believed that the type of evaluation to which the junior secondary school pupils are subjected to will have a far reaching effect on the whole junior secondary school idea. It has therefore been decided that continuous assessment in the form of gradings or marks awarded for assignments, end-of-term and end-of-year examination marks and teachers' gradings based upon classwork should form and essential part of final assessment of the students. This way a good balance should be maintained between the attention given to the traditional academic subjects and the practical vocational subjects by the schools. Apart from the school marks there will also be an external assessment through examinations to be conducted by an external body to determine the standing of each student at the end of the course.

Apart from the 90 junior secondary schools there are some 4193 middle schools in the system which will be converted into junior secondary schools eventually. The total student population for all these middle schools is over 474,500 made up of 280,000 boys and 193,500 girls with 22,000 teachers.

Special Education

Finally, I wish to refer briefly to the situation regarding education of handicapped children. We have had a school for the blind at Akropong since the early fifties. But the organisation and supervision of handicapped children's education by the Ministry of Education was put on a sound footing with the creation of a Special Education Unit in 1970. There are several schools providing basic education for deaf children. The emphasis, especially for the older children, is on vocational education with tailoring, dressmaking, leatherwork, poultry-keeping and wood work as areas of emphasis. There are two schools for the blind at first cycle level where the blind pupils are integrated in school work with sighted colleagues. Provision exists for the brighter students to do secondary school work in selected institutions. Here also vocational courses are given special attention with typing as an important course. There is only one school for the mentally handicapped at present that is under government supervision. The educable children go through a programme involving some basic number work and language work. A less demanding academic work is planned for those who are trainable. In this school too development of vocational skills is stressed with activities like crop production, dressmaking and craft work being taught. The main emphasis is on rehabilitation. The Ministry co-operates with the school authorities in providing medical service.

TRENDS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN ENGLAND AND IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Jeremy Greenland
Unesco Institute for Education
Hamburg, FRG

Introduction

Purpose of the Paper

This paper differ from the others presented to this ACO Workshop in that it discusses aspects of the primary school curriculum and of curriculum development at primary school level not in Africa but in two European countries, England and the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG). My intention is therefore rather different from that of the other lecturers. Whereas they understandably expect you to buy what they have to sell, I am inviting you to do some window-shopping, to have a good look and then to go away and decide whether some of the items you have seen are worth buying, and, if so, what the price is likely to be. Every African teacher in training learns that in the colonial era European patterns of education were exported to Africa and imposed on the indigenous population. There is a very real sense in which commercial and aid pressures have replaced today the colonial pressures of the past: ministry officials often accept what influential publishing companies and aid experts force on them. Colonial education policies tended to conceal the fact that educational systems and practice back in Europe were extremely varied and complex. So too today there is a danger that influential African officials returning from visits to Europe recommend one particular type of curriculum that they have seen with such enthusiasm that the links between this type of curriculum and its original environment and the rival claims of quite different curricula are not taken into account. The purpose of this paper is therefore to bring out the complicated, untidy nature of the primary school curriculum and its development in both England and the FRG and to urge caution and a lot of critical afterthought on you the window-shoppers.

Curriculum and Hidden Curriculum

In keeping with the practical connotation of the word 'workshop' our main concern is with the curriculum in practice and with curriculum development in practice rather than with the theoretical debates which have mushroomed around both issues. Nevertheless, in order to avoid building the practical discussion on misunderstandings, some definitional ground-clearing must be done.

For 'curriculum' we may take the definition given in the recently published OECD Handbook on Curriculum Development, 'all of the experiences of children for which the school should accept responsibility',[1] and balance its rather impersonal reference to 'school' with an appropriate reference to the teacher-learner relationship and to the exploratory nature of learning in R.A. Hodgkin's phrase, 'a small world or microculture created by teachers at various levels of abstraction for learners to explore'.[2]

Sandwiched somewhere between planned curriculum and curriculum in practice is the hidden curriculum. 'Somewhere' is used deliberately because the increasingly common phrase 'hidden curriculum' has different meanings for different people. Some authors[3] use it to refer to the messages which teachers more or less implicitly and more or less consciously transmit to their pupils.for example that neatness, punctuality, deference to authority, the acceptance of competition are rewarded in school and in later life; on occasions the explicit messages of the curriculum may conflict with the hidden ones, as for example when pupils are encouraged to write an imaginative literary essay but know that most of the marks are given for correct grammar and spelling. For an influential group of sociologists of education[4] the term 'hidden curriculum' has a much wider field of reference. They argue that the primary function of the curriculum is to act as mechanism separating the elite from the masses; the distribution of power in society as a whole is reflected in the way in which knowledge is stratified and distributed in schools: pupils in secondary school who are destined for university study science in its 'pure', separate branches of chemistry, biology and physics, while a much less prestigious 'integrated' science course is reserved for less able children of the same age. According to this theory the 'hidden curriculum' of the primary school is to transmit to the majority of children the low-level skills and acceptable social attitudes which fit them for low-status positions in the economy. Sincere writers on colonial education in Africa point to the existence of a similar hidden curriculum, it is pertinent to ask at this workshop what is the hidden curriculum of primary education in Africa today. I hope that towards the end of this session we will try to be more specific about the messages hidden in our primary school curricula and ask ourselves whether we intend to reform or perpetuate them.

A Model of Curriculum Development

We will review briefly Havelock's[5] widely accepted model of curriculum development, borrowing it in the edited, summarised form in which it appears in the Open University Course on Curriculum Design and Development.[6] This model will then serve as a clothes-line on which to hang the pegs which represent specific examples and projects of curriculum development in England and the FRG. Havelock distinguishes between three models of curriculum change:

1. the R.D. and D model (Research, Development and Dissemination),
2. the Social Interaction model and
3. the Problem-Solving model.

Research, Development and Dissemination

'The strategies grouped by Havelock under this heading represent many of the methods used in the curriculum-development movement which began in the United States and in Great Britain in the 1960s. Basically it is a centre-periphery model of change. At the centre are the agencies of curriculum development funded by such bodies as the Nuffield Foundation and the Schools Council. It is the function of these agencies to develop new curricula based on the current state of the art in the relevant theory and research, and to test and evaluate these materials in school situations before disseminating the finished product. Schools are thus at the periphery of the system and the teacher is, in Havelock's terms, 'a passive but rational consumer'... To some extent curriculum-development agencies must rely upon the 'natural' processes of diffuction - word-of-mouth, advertising, journal references - for these products to spread, but they will often approach the task more systematically via courses, conferences, or workshops, generally stopping short of assisting with implementation at the school level.'

Social Interaction

By the Social Interaction model Havelock understands the spreading of new ideas and practices by means of informal (and also rather more formal) contact between teachers themselves, between teachers and inspectors, advisers, lecturers etc., in the school staff-room but also at courses, conferences and workshops. In addition to the informal messengers, innovation is spread informally through media of various kinds, from professional journals to advertising and the mass media.

Problem-Solving

In the Problem-Solving approach the 'centre' from which innovative initiative comes is the school. 'Unlike the R.D. and D approach, the innovations are not specified in advance, but arise from the perceived needs of schools and take into account their own particular context... The problem-solving differs also from the R.D. and D approach in focusing on the procedures for innovation rather than upon the innovation itself. It might be crudely summarised in the adage: look after the procedures and the innovations will look after themselves. This has two basic requirements. Firstly, a school staff needs to share a problem-solving approach, that is, they will need to be permanently monitoring the activities of the school, perceiving the changing needs of the system, and exploring and testing ways of meeting these needs. Secondly, the school needs to develop the organisational structures which facilitate the identification of problems, the search for alternative solutions, the choice between alternatives, and the implementation of this choice.'

Three Major Trends in Curriculum Development in England and the Federal Republic of Germany

The OECD Handbook on Curriculum Development bases its own analysis of recent trends on Havelock's three models and goes on to make a further distinction between system-based and subject-based forms of curriculum development. System-based curriculum development stems from an organisational reform of a particular sector of the education system, for example, 'the move towards later selection and separation into different types of post-primary schooling'; subject-based curriculum development, on the other hand, is the 'attempt to improve the quality of learning in some particular area of knowledge'.[7]

In neither England nor the FRG, however, can one really speak of an organisational reform of primary education in recent years comparable to the comprehensive reforms undertaken since independence in many African countries. What has happened - to a greater extent perhaps in England than the FRG - is that a 'child-centred' philosophy of education and an 'informal', 'progressive' methodology of teaching have gradually come to dominate colleges of education, the inspectorate and the advisory service, and as a consequence, to exert an increasing influence on practice in the schools. (The word 'gradually is used deliberately since it was the Hadow Report on Primary Education in 1931, not the Plowden Report of 1967 which said that 'the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored.'[8]) It should also be noted, that the removal of selection at the age of eleven plus into separate types of secondary school must be seen as a crucial factor influencing curriculum development at primary level in England. In this connection, given that the demand for secondary education in Africa will exceed supply for many years to come, given that there must be a selection exam, and given this exam is the most powerful single influence on the primary school curriculum, it is pertinent to ask whether Curriculum Development Centres are doing all they can to participate in the process by which this exam is formulated and administered. Have they developed alternative exams for trial and implementation?

In both England and the FRG the subject-based curriculum development projects which have taken place in a piecemeal, uncoordinated fashion over recent years provide evidence supportive of the trends which the OECD Handbook singles out.

Expansion Beyond the Three Rs

It refers first to the expansion of the primary school curriculum beyond the 3Rs, and mentions by way of example the attention now given to art, handicraft, drama and movement. All four areas of learning are catered for in the Schools Council's project 'The Structuring of Play in the Infant/ First School' which has as its premises 'that children learn and develop through play, that play in school should be structured and that adults have a role in children's play in school.'[9]

The Handbook might equally well have mentioned the introduction of French at upper primary level in England and the shift from 'nature study' to 'experimental science'. The most recent Schools Council Newsletter reminds us that there have been three major science projects in England in the past 15 years whose publications, together with a wealth of commercially produced material, provide an extremely rich and vital resource for teachers.[10]

The shift from an accent on content learned to skills and attitudes developed is evident in all these materials. The Project Place, Time and Society 8 - 13, for example, lists among the intellectual skills to be developed

(a) the ability to find information from a variety of sources, in a variety of ways;

(b) the ability to interpret pictures, charts, graphs, maps, etc..;

(c) the ability to evaluate information;

(d) the ability to formulate and test hypotheses and generalisations.[11]

It would be quite wrong, however, to imagine that the 3Rs have been neglected. The course Mathematics for Schools by Harold Fletcher and the "alef" mathematics project based at Frankfurt are examples of successful reforms in the direction of modern mathematics. The Breakthrough to Literacy project claims modestly to be only incorporating 'things that good Infants' School teachers are already doing', but this includes the significant development of integrating the production (writing) and the reception (reading) of written language through the tool of the Sentence Maker:

> *'The Sentence Maker is designed to overcome two major difficulties that small children have when they attempt to write: their lack of manual dexterity in handling a writing tool and the difficulty they have in spelling words. The Sentence Maker presents the child with bits of language already printed so that his task is to learn to arrange these to compose sentences. Handwriting and spelling are not neglected. They are taught as skills separate from that of composing a written text.'* [12]

Perhaps more significant than any single language course is the growing acceptance, stimulated by the London Association for the Teaching of English and then further promoted by the Bullock Report,[13] of the notion of language across the curriculum as a policy:

> *'The language and learning policy of a school is its attempt to develop a shared set of intentions about how teachers might best assist their pupils to learn: it affirms the central importance of language because it is through language, and only through language, that many kinds of school learning can occur; and it*

> *brings together teachers of pupils of all ages, from all disciplines, because the question of how to set up, for instance, group talk, or effective writing assignments, is common to all subjects, and all stages of education. Once started, this is a process that continues; most teachers know how rarely they are satisfied with their teaching, and so the search for effective ways of helping children to learn is unending.'*[14]

The booklet goes on to suggest, in the most practical terms, the steps by which teachers can "map the approaches to and uses of language in the school" and then plan a common policy together.

The notion of language across the curriculum reflects the steadily growing commitment in England to the integration of previously autonomous "disciplines", a commitment already evident in the early Schools Council Environmental Studies Project and the Keele Integrated Studies Project. The current Schools Council Health Education Project falls across the whole curriculum in that it encompasses not only hygiene and physical health and development, but also many emotional, social and environmental facets of human life. In the FRG the experimental curricula for the reception class all manifest the integration principle, but higher up the primary school it tends to evaporate, and even within the confines of the subject "general pre-science" (Sachunterricht) the component parts of "society" (history, geography and social studies) and "nature" (biology, chemistry and physics) are treated as separate entities by the syllabuses of the 11 Federal States and by the vast majority of the approved textbooks.

Increased attention to social objectives

The second general trend noted by the Handbook is an increased attention to social objectives, moving away from competition towards cooperation, from authoritarian teaching methods to a larger degree of pupil choice. The social skills required for successful membership of small groups have an equal importance to the intellectual skills in the introduction to the Place, Time and Society 8-13 Project. The Carl-Benz School Project at Stuttgart mentions among its aims the acquisition of social skills, the removal of pressure for individual achievement.[15] In a similar vein the Marburg Primary School Project gives as guiding principles the "democratisation" of the contents of education and the fostering of "social learning" by which is understood group learning and a concern with social issues.[16]

Change in the internal organisation of the school

We can best deal with the third trend mentioned by the OECD Handbook changes in the internal organisation of the school which facilitate active, interest-based learning, by taking three "real-life" illustrations. The first, "Organising the day" comes from the Case Study "The West Riding:

Changes in Primary Education" which is in turn part of the Open University's Curriculum Design and Development Course:

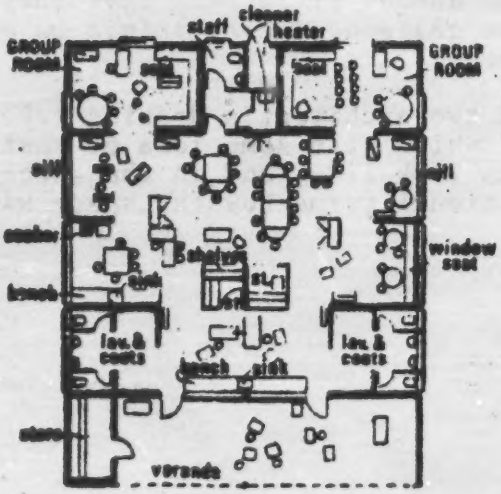
> *'The routine is that first thing in the morning, the children can come in as soon as they arrive at school and can begin work on what we call activities. Activities can cover a wide range of things - painting, fabric, three-dimensional construction work, science, or anything that the children are interested to continue from the previous day. This goes on roughly from about 9 until 10 o'clock when we pack away all our things and go into the hall at quarter past ten for prayers. After prayers' the children go out to play. Then for the rest of the day the teacher is left to plan his or her own work. Most of us work on a semi-integrated system. Each day we try and cover mathematics, English, Reading, Music and Movement, not everyday, perhaps two or three times a week; storytime every day. Then perhaps two or three times a week they do environmental studies or some aspect of science that they have started. These are roughly the things we cover during the day.'*

The second extract is two architect's drawing taken from the Plowden Report 17 which give some idea of what open schools and classrooms look like, and in the accompanying text justify in educational terms how the space will be used:

Extension to Convert Existing Infants' School for 240 Pupils of 5 to 7 years into School for 320 Pupils of 5 to 8 years.

Diagram 10 shows one possible way of providing for an additional age group in the infants' schools within the current framework of cost allowances.

It is designed for a 'community' of 80 children and two teachers, with the aim of encouraging a flexible approach to the pattern of activity. In Diagram 10 the space can, if desired, be treated as two separate rooms, each with a small enclosed carpeted area with window seating, where up to 40 children can gather for story-telling and the like, or where a few individuals can read quietly. But there is also a shared area for the messier activities, equipped with benching, sink and tools, which opens on to the veranda. Quite a large central space could be cleared on occasions for impromptu drama, etc.



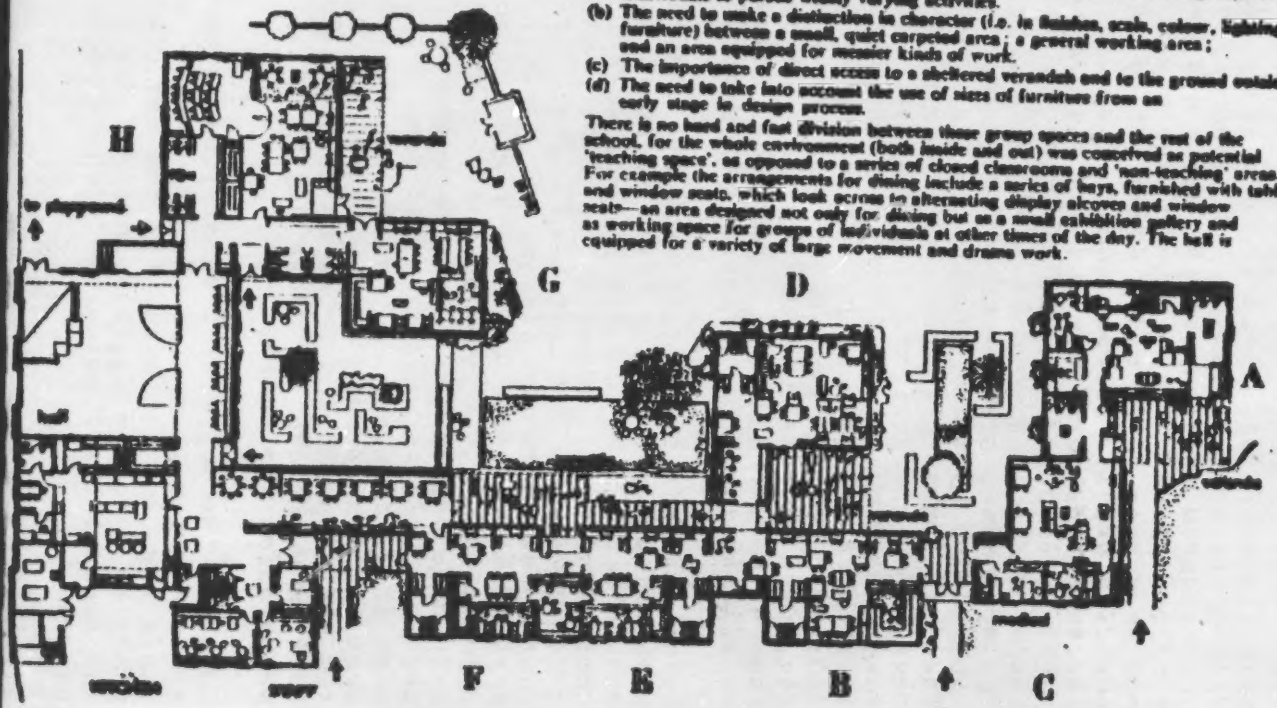
School for 320 Pupils Aged 3½ to 9 Years
Evelina Lowe School, Rollo Road, London, S.E. 1

This school was designed by the Department's Development Group in collaboration with the Inner London Education Authority within the current cost limit. The accommodation was planned for the following groupings of the 320 pupils:

Two nursery groups of 30 children (A and C on plan)
Four "family" groups of 40 children, with an age range of about two years (B, D, E, & F)
Two groups of older children, one of 40 (G) and one of 60 (H).
The last group was, of course, to be looked after by more than one teacher.
The main features to emerge, in the interpretation of the educational requirements in terms of planning for each of these eight groups were:

(a) The need to sub-divide the available space to allow a number of small groups of individuals to pursue widely varying activities.
(b) The need to make a distinction in character (*i.e.* in finishes, scale, colour, lighting, furniture) between a small, quiet carpeted area; a general working area; and an area equipped for messier kinds of work.
(c) The importance of direct access to a sheltered verandah and to the ground outside.
(d) The need to take into account the use of sizes of furniture from an early stage in design process.

There is no hard and fast division between these group spaces and the rest of the school, for the whole environment (both inside and out) was conceived as potential 'teaching space', as opposed to a series of closed classrooms and 'non-teaching' areas. For example the arrangements for dining include a series of bays, furnished with tables and window seats, which look across to alternating display alcoves and window seats—an area designed not only for dining but as a small exhibition gallery and as working space for groups of individuals at other times of the day. The hall is equipped for a variety of large movement and drama work.



The final and much larger extract[18] also from the Plowden Report, takes an imaginary visitor to three schools, run successfully on modern lines and which are representative of the top third of the schools that the Plowden team visited. The Report adds that the pictures given are not imaginary, but the schools are composite:

> *'The first is an infant school occupying a 70 year old building, three storeys high, near the station in a large city.....A number of children are coloured and some of the white children are poorly dressed. All, however, are clean. The children seem to be using every bit of the building and its surroundings. They spread into the hall, the corridors and the playground. The nursery class has its own quarters and the children are playing with sand, water, paint, clay, dolls, rocking horses and big push toys under the supervision of their teacher. This is how they learn. There is serenity in the room, belying the belief that happy children are always noisy. The children make rather a mess of themselves and their room, but this, with a little help, they clear up themselves. A dispute between two little boys about who is to play with what is resolved by the teacher and a first lesson in taking turns is learned. Learning is going on all the time, but there is not much direct teaching.*
>
> *Going out into the playground, the visitor finds a group of children, with their teacher, clustered around a large square box full of earth. The excitement is all about an earthworm, which none of the children had ever seen before. Their classroom door opens on to the playground and inside are the rest of the class, seated at tables disposed informally about the room, some reading books that they have themselves chosen from the copious shelves along the side of the room and some measuring the quantities of water that different vessels will hold. Soon the teacher and worm watchers return except for two children who have gone to the library to find a book on worms and the class begins to tidy up in preparation for lunch.*
>
> *Later in the day, the visitor finds a small group of six and seven year olds who are writing about the music they have enjoyed with the headmistress. He picks up a home-made book entitled "My book of sounds" and reads the following, written on plain unlined paper:-*

"The mandolin is made with lovely soft smooth wood and it has a pattern like tortoise shell on it. It has pearl on it and it is called mother of pearl. It has eight strings and they are all together in twos and all the pairs make a different noise. The ones with the thickest strings make the lowest notes and the ones that have the thinnest strings make the highest notes. When I put the mandolin in my lap and I pulled the thickest string it kept on for a long time and I pulled the thinnest wire and it did not last so long and I stroked them all and they didn't go away for a long time."

Quite a number of these children write with equal fluency and expressiveness, and with concentration. The sound of music from the hall attracts the visitor and there he finds a class who are making up and performing a dance drama in which the forces of good are overcoming the forces of evil to the accompaniment of drums and tambourines.

The next school is a junior mixed school on the outskirts of the city in an area that was not long since one of fields and copses and which has been developed since 1950.....The visitor finds his way into a fourth year B class (the school is unstreamed in the first three years) and finds a teacher who is a radio enthusiast. The children, under his guidance, have made a lot of apparatus and have set up a transmitting station.....In another classroom the children had been asked to make models at home which showed how things could be moved without being touched. They had brought to school some extremely ingenious constructions, using springs, pulleys, electromagnets, elastic and levers, and they came out before the class to demonstrate and explain them. When the visitor left they were preparing to describe their ideas in their notebooks.

During break some of the children went into the hall and listened to the headmaster's wife playing the C major prelude. In another room the chess club was meeting and the visitor saw a Ruy Lopez and a King's Pawn opening and the school champion lose his Queen. In yet another room the natural history club was meeting to discuss its programme for the coming year, while outside the school football team was having a short practice. The library was filled with children. The visitor was interested to notice that there was no contrast between this rich and varied out of school life and the life in school hours which offered just as much choice and stimulus.

The third school, a three teacher junior mixed and infant school, is in the country. It was built in 1878 by the squire and since 1951 it has been a Church of England voluntary controlled school.... The class of sevens to nines were rather numerous for their small room, but had spread out into the corridor and were engaged in a variety of occupations. One group was gathered round their teacher for some extra reading practice, another was at work on an extraordinary structure of wood and metal which they said was a sputnik, a third was collecting a number of objects and testing them to find out which could be picked up by a magnet and two boys were at work on an immense painting (six feet by four feet) of St. Michael defeating Satan. They seemed to be working harmoniously according to an unfolding rather than a pre-conceived plan. Conversation about the work that the children were doing went on all the time.

In the large new infants' room, too, many different things were going on. Some children were reading quietly to themselves; some were using a recipe to make some buns, and were doubling the quantities since they wanted to make twice the number; a few older children were using commercial structural apparatus to consolidate their knowledge of number relationships; some of the youngest children needed their teacher's help in adding words and phrases to the pictures they had painted. The teacher moved among individuals and groups doing these and other things, and strove to make sure that all were learning.'

At this point the authors of the Plowden Report add that

'What goes on in primary schools cannot greatly differ from one school to another, since there is only a limited range of material within the capacity of primary school children. It is the approach, the motivation, the emphasis and the outcome that are different. In these schools, children's own interests direct their attention to many fields of knowledge and the teacher is alert to provide material, books or experience for the development of their ideas.'

Visitors to the above three schools who were also familiar with 'above average' schools in urban and rural Africa would probably comment on the vastly different financial resources available to the English teachers and their African counterparts. Although this reaction is fully justified, it should not be allowed to obscure Plowden's reference to 'alert', dedicated teachers. If the schools described above depend not only on generous financial provision but also on teachers who are prepared to cope with long working hours and the heavy demands of group-work and monitoring the progress of individual pupils, other countries aiming at similar educational standards must ask whether they are producing a similar proportion of dedicated teachers. The preoccupation of Ministry officials with financial aid, with quantitative expansion of enrolments and with the reform of the written curriculum has meant a regrettable neglect

of the ordinary primary school teacher in Africa and to ignorance of how his/her commitment could best be raised.

The Extent of Curriculum Development in the Federal Republic of Germany

A survey of current trends in primary level curriculum development which is as impressionistic as the one just given serves little purpose unless an attempt is made to answer three more searching questions:

(a) how much curriculum development actually is being done?

(b) how much curriculum development becomes curriculum practice?

(c) in what direction is curriculum development itself evolving?

Foundation-sponsored Curriculum Development

Having posed the first of these questions, we are immediately going to evade a proper answer with the excuse that both in the FRG and in England the situation is very hard to assess. The Report of the Council of Education (Bildungsrat) which produced the Strukturplan in 1970, noted that

> *'a systematically conducted and scientifically orientated programme of curriculum research is hardly developed for the primary level in the FRG.'* [19]

In the light of the progress made since 1970 this statement certainly requires revision. In 1967, for example, the Volkswagen Works Foundation had set up an invited committee of scholars to define priorities in educational research aid development, and the general heading of CIEL [20] (Curriculum der Institutionalisierten Elementarerziehung) a number of primary education projects were financed by the Foundation from 1971 onwards, in reception class curriculum, science teaching, the fostering of social skills, etc. Several of the projects have since resulted in commercial publications disseminated to a wider audience, but it is not clear what has become of the original plan to set up model schools in which the individual bits of reformed curricula would be put together to form a whole.

Adapting Imported Curriculum Packages

One characteristic of recent curriculum development work in the FRG is particularly relevant to the concerns of this workshop, namely the fact that many of the new curriculum "packages" now on offer originate outside the FRG, often in the U.S. and England, and the conviction that they must be adapted if they are to be successfully implemented in the FRG. Drawing on the lessons learned from the experimental implementation of four foreign natural science and social science

curriculum packages in the early 1970's, Block[21] discusses the factors to be considered when deciding whether to adapt or not. Among the most important are:

(a) a comparison between the type of school and the type of teacher in the curriculum's:

(i) original and

(ii) new environment

(b) cost factors such as whether the adapting' country can afford the instructional materials demanded by the new syllabus (the MACOS social science course, for instance, presupposed availability of 8 mm film projectors);

(c) how far the factual content was 'culture-bound' (a Sesame Street television programme used an egg-box to teach the number 12 because eggs are packed in 12s in the U.S.; the example is counter-productive in the F.R.G. where eggs are sold in packs of 6 or 10);

(d) that any curriculum package reflects a particular view of its subject and a particular world view, the commonly quoted example being the new science curricula in the U.S. in the late 1950s and 1960s which assume both the 'neutrality' of scientific knowledge, yet on the other hand the legitimacy of expanding scientific instruction in schools so that the U.S. could compete better with the U.S.S.R. We might well ask ourselves how far curricula which promote self-directed learning are welcome in societies which respect group-based decisions and the word of influential elders. Block asks whether the curriculum materials to be adapted allow for a sufficiently critical assessment of one's own society. The MACOS kit, for example, invites comparison between the Netsilik eskimos and the industrialised society of the U.S., but the absence of an hierarchical social order on the eskimo side of the equation means that one omits to enquire to what extent the hierarchies distributing power and wealth in western societies are good and should be perpetuated;

(e) finally, the decision whether or not to adapt must be influenced by the resources available to provide teacher in-service education. If teachers are expected to insert a totally new course into their current working load merely by swapping it for a course with which they are completely familiar, failure is bound to result. The quotation on the dust-jacket of Hawes' recent book makes this point in an African context:

> *'At a conference (Nigeria, 1971)*
> *First delegate: That Mathematics Syllabus is too difficult. Rural children in the North wouldn't be able to follow it.*

Second delegate: It's been tested. The children at the Lagos University Demonstration School have no difficulty with it.

Postscript (1979)

It was adopted. Rural children in the North could not follow it adequately. Poor teaching was blamed.'[22]

Bloch has two lessons for us: adapt before you adopt. But before doing even that, make sure that it's really what you want and that you can afford it.

Experimental Schools and Curriculum Development Institutes

The only real curriculum work - in the sense of contents and methods - instigated in the F.R.G. by the Bildungsrat or Council of Education, was carried out by its experimental education sub-committee, not by the more influential committee dealing with the politically thorny question of the structure of the education system. In consequence, although exciting curriculum development work has been undertaken in a number of experimental schools, for example at the Bielefeld Laborschule and the Glockenschule in Hanover, and at university departments of education, there has been no obligation for the independent-minded State Ministries of education to incorporate these innovation in the syllabuses and guidelines which they issue. Certain of the more 'progressive' ministries have established curriculum development centres and given them a measure of autonomy, but, for example in the case of Hesse, the fruits of the centre's labours proved politically unacceptable, and the ministry has again taken over control of defining the curriculum.

There is, therefore, in the F.R.G. the paradoxical situation of a large number of curriculum development initiatives and disappointingly little widespread implementation of their work in the schools. A survey[23] conducted in the early 1970s by the Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, identified some 127 curriculum development schemes of various kinds. Some of the curriculum development institutes which were set up by independent foundations such as the Volkswagen Works are now almost totally supported by federal and state government funds, for example the Institute for Science Education at Kiel which has a professional staff of over 50. One problem is that the materials produced by such institutes have to compete with a huge range of commercial produced instructional materials all of which are already on the ministry's approved list: a primary 'General Pre-Science' (Sachunterricht) course produced recently by the Kiel Institute is competing with over 40 rivals. In passing we should perhaps note that Curriculum Development Centre in Africa are faced with a similar problem: they cannot hope to produce textbooks specific to one particular country at the same quality and price as textbooks which are produced by commercial publishers for the whole west, central or east African markets. Again, if a country decides to recognise a number of African languages as official, books produced in those languages cannot hope to compete in both quality and price with parallel books in English or French.

The pressure for these curriculum development institutes in the FRG at state level to conform to centrally determined norms is very strong; permission to try out experimental materials in a number of schools can be obtained from the authorities, but the latter must be satisfied that the children in question will not be at a disadvantage at the end of the experiment when it comes to reverting to the standard syllabus.

The OECD Handbook sums up by referring to 'a general air of disenchantment with curriculum development in Western Germany'.[24]

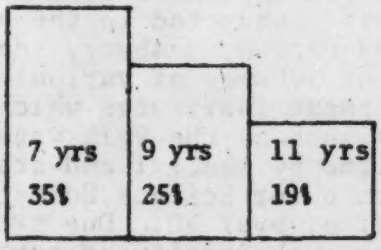
From Curriculum Development to Classroom Practice

One could go over similar ground in the case of England and try to assess 'how much' curriculum development is represented in the 160 projects so far launched by the Schools Council in its first 15 years of existence, and compare this 'volume' with the projects generated by other agencies and publishing houses. The recent survey[25] by HM Inspectors of Schools does, however, help us address the second question in that it gives some indication of the extent to which these projects and the trends they embody have affected current classroom practice.

The Evidence of the Inspectors' Survey

The Inspectors found, for example, that despite all the publicity given to notions such as 'abandoning the concept of the class as a single unit' and 'breaking up the tradional static classroom situation', only one tenth of classes were in accommodation that could be described as open plan or semi-open plan.

The practice of deliberately arranging children in classes of mixed age - sometimes called 'vertical grouping' - was rather more widespread. Taking only schools large enough to allow single age school year groups, the percentage of mixed age classes was as follows:



'Streaming by ability was most common with 11 year olds, but even for that age group affected only 17% of those schools large enough to stream. Overall, only about one 11 year old class in 20 was streamed.

'The teachers formed various kinds of teaching groups within their classes so that they could allow for individual differences among children. Mathematics, reading and writing were the subjects for which children were commonly grouped according to ability. Individual assignments were also frequently set in these subjects. Mixed ability groups, where they were formed, were generally used for work in art and craft, physical education and science.

'About a half of the classes - more for the 11 years olds than for the 7 years olds - regrouped with other classes, and most frequently for music, craft and physical education. In about a fifth of the survey classes, this regrouping was used to allow special attention to be paid to the least able children in the age groups. Such children were sometimes withdrawn from their class for special tuition. This was rarely done for exceptionally able children.

'The incidence of "exploratory" teaching methods and of "pupil initiative" in learning was again lower than in popularly believed. The survey team identified three broad categories of teaching method:

(a) mainly didatic: the teacher was inclined to direct the children's work in accordance with relatively specific and predetermined intentions, and explanations usually preceded action by the children.

(b) mainly exploratory: the broad objectives of the work were discussed with the children who were then put into the position of finding their own ways of solving the problems set. The scope and time scale were likely to be flexible and the path of the work modified in the light of events. Explanations by the teacher usually accompanied or followed work by the children.

(c) a mixed approach: in this sometimes one technique was used and sometimes the other and the teacher did not seem to have a predisposition to either but chose according to circumstances.

'Of the teachers in the survey classes, 75% were found to use mainly didactic methods; 20% used a mixed approach; and 5% used a mainly exploratory approach.

'In the great majority of classes, the content of work and use of resources was prescribed, sometimes to the extent that children had insufficient opportunity to incorporate information already known to them or make use of spontaneous incidents that arose. In only about one class in ten was there evidence of extended studies.

'The prominence given to "social objectives" in the preamble to many recently published curriculum materials seems to have found a faithful response in classroom practice. Consideration for other people and concern for the school environment were widely and effectively encouraged in almost all the classes inspected. In 90% of the classes teachers provided opportunities for children to take responsibility and to participate as members

of a group. In about two-thirds of the classes, situations were planned and used to encourage children to make informed choices, to use their initiative and to be responsible for their own work and behaviour.

'Although there was considerable evidence that the curriculum had been broadened, the extent of real integration between the various skills and areas of learning was disappointing. The Inspectors noted that in science, social studies, art and craft, children were not sufficiently encouraged to make careful and detailed observations or accurate measurements, though these are habits of study that have applications in many aspects of the children's work. Techniques learnt in mathematics, including graphical and other diagrammatic forms of presentation, were seldom used in other areas of the curriculum.

'The work in history and geography was often associated with a general topic and while nine out of ten 9 and 11 year old classed undertook some work of a historical and geographical nature, often related to the local environment of the school, the work tended to be fragmented and somewhat superficial. In some classes children moved from one assignment to another in a fairly random way. There was considerable evidence that work in these subjects would benefit from more careful planning to provide some ordering of the content to be taught and to ensure that children are introduced to essential skills such as the ability to use atlases, maps and globes.

'Some forms of art and craft activity were undertaken by every class but drawing and modelling from direct observation were seldom encouraged. Almost every class had some materials for drawing, painting and printmaking. The emphasis placed on the children using a wide variety of materials sometimes resulted in superficial work, as children were not given sufficient experience of a particular material or activity to enable them to acquire some degree of mastery of essential skills and techniques.

'The Inspectors expressed concern that few primary schools visited in the course of the survey had effective programmes for the teaching of science, including nature study; where science was taught the emphasis tended to be placed on work relating to plants and animals. Studies relating specifically to man-made artefacts, mechanical actions or the physical sciences were comparatively rare.

'The teaching of music was supported in a variety of ways to ensure that all the classes received some teaching in this subject.

'The emphasis given to games, gymnastics, dance and swimming differed according to the facilities and opportunities available in a particular school. Some form of gymnastic equipment was available in 90% of the classes and a similar percentage of 11 year old classes were taught to swim. The stage at which children were introduced to major team games such as netball and football varied according to the circumstances of the school but almost all 9 and 11 year old classes had some opportunities to participate in team games.

'The place of religious education in schools is supported by the statutory requirements of the 1944 Education Act. Almost three-quarters of all the schools, including county, voluntary and aided schools, made an explicit reference to using an agreed syllabus for the teaching of religious education. In four-fifths of the classes the children were learning explicitly about man's attempt to frame religious and moral values and the Bible was the most common source of material used.

'In nearly all assemblies taking place in schools there was an overt religious content. Primary schools were generally concerned to provide children with a religious education based on Christian beliefs and values. Consideration might usefully be given to ways in which the range of work in religious education could be broadened to respond more fully to the challenge of living in a multi-faith society.'

This final comment on religious education is relevant to the contemporary African context. In an understandable desire to remove an imposed European tradition of religious and/or moral education, there has often not been a subsequent effort to develop a new 'authentic' alternative. 'Nationalisation' of mission schools has resulted in many cases in a situation where no moral or religious education is taught at all and where Teachers Training Colleges do not oblige their students to face the issue of what to teach in this area and how to justify their decision in the matter to dissenting parents.

If pressed, we would have to admit that this "state of the art" report a primary school education in England does not refer to the effect of any one specific curriculum development project. This deficiency is in the process of being remedied by the Schools Council itself with its Impact and Take-up project. Results of a teacher questionnaire and a separate survey will provide firm evidence of the effect which the Council's own projects - and indeed other projects - are having on schools. The project has recently been extended to include an examination of the reasons why projects are accepted or rejected by the Council, and a study of how certain key projects have been helped by information flows and support systems at LEA and other levels.

The trend towards teacher-based curriculum development

Dissatisfaction with R, D and D.

Commentators on the recent evolution of curriculum development are agreed that the enthusiasm of the 1960s for the R, D and D model and for the "teacher-proof" materials which that approach tended to produce has steadily evaporated in favour of the move open-ended, school-based experimentation, supported by a new structure of local teacher's centres, which is characteristic of the Problem-Solving model. This change can be attributed

to several factors: to intellectual dissatisfaction with the validity of the behavioural objective-scientific evaluation paradigm in the context of children learning;[26] to the practical conclusion that curriculum packages based on this paradigm had failed to deliver the promised goods; and to the conviction that the monopoly of the "experts" should be broken.

Joan Tough, director of the Communication Skills in Early Childhood Project makes an explicit link between the decision to launch the project and the widespread alarm with which nursery teacher in England reacted to the American Headstart programmes, to their sequential oral lessons and accompanying test of need and progress. The project founders were convinced 'that there were other methods that would involve the child's interests in using language and provide intrinsic reward and motivation, and that such methods were more likely to have a longer lasting effect'.[27]

The Marburg Primary School Project[28] directed by Professor Klafki, argued that teachers cannot be expected to introduce children to the notion of co-determination in industry and other areas of adult work if they the teachers have no say in the curriculum development process. The team leaders tried to structure the inflow of information and expertise in such a way that researchers and teachers reacted to it as equal partners; the experience gained by either partners would, considered as formative evaluation, be fed back into the curriculum development process. Nevertheless, the leaders of the project were honest enough to admit the difficulties involved in insisting on substantial teacher participation throughout, notably the differing levels of academic specialisation of researchers and teacher, the special jargon developed by researchers, the constraints on the teacher's time which the researcher does not have, etc.

The OECD Handbook on Curriculum Development also notes this general trend, pointing out that both the "alef" mathematic project at Frankfurt and the Science 5 - 13 project in England started in a fairly rigid R, D and D mould, 'embracing the specification of behavioral objectives and the attempt to create "teacher-proof" materials. But both development teams learned, as their work progressed, that this approach suffered from difficulties of implementation; and both have since evolved through the social interaction stage to a position more nearly characteristic of the problem-solving model.'[29]

Teachers' Centres

The dramatic rise in the number of Teacher's Centres[30] in England-from a handful in 1966 to over 600 ten years later - confirms the trend away from a R, D and D to a Problem Solving model of curriculum development. The Teachers' Centres mushroomed almost as a "spin-off" from the heavy involvement of teachers in specific curriculum reforms, the introduction of the Certificate of Secondary Education, of "Nuffield Maths" at primary level, and of the Raising of the School Learning Age from 15 to 16. The Schools Council Working Paper No,10 (1967) gave a considerable

impetus to the organisation of Teachers' Centres, defining their principal functions as:

(a) giving teachers a setting within which new objectives can be discussed and defined;

(b) contributing to the evaluation of national project materials;

(c) keeping teachers informed about research and development.

In its conclusion, however, the Working Paper makes it clear that the Teachers' Centres' important functions of dissemination are to be complemented by equally important functions of initiation. Two basic principles of curriculum development are:

> *'first, that the motive power should come primarily from local groups of teachers accessible to one another; secondly, that there should be effective and close collaboration between teachers and all those who are able to offer co-operation.'*

A more recent article in Dialogue (1975) gives examples of how the Schools Council hopes to see these principles working out in practice and comments on the contribution which it itself intends to make:

> *'A rapidly growing interest in individualized learning in science resulted in the coming together of teachers, advisers and lecturers to exchange ideas and experiences drawn from several areas of the country. The task of developing these ideas was initially supported by a local authority, who paid for the part-time release of a teacher to co-ordinate the work. The Council has now been asked, and has agreed, to contribute to his salary for a period of one year.*
>
> *In another area a scheme of record keeping has been developed that encourages secondary pupils to make their own 'record of personal achievement'. The scheme, which involved the local schools, the careers advisory service and local industry, has attracted interest in other authorities, some of whom have adopted it for use in their own schools. The Council has agreed to fund an independent evaluation of this scheme, so that schools and local authorities may better judge its suitability to their needs.*
>
> *Before the Council was asked to provide support for these projects, discussion at local level had taken place amongst teachers, the local authorities and Council Staff, in order to determine the distinctive qualities of the work, which might justify its fuller development, its wider dissemination or its independent evaluation. We see this local consultation at an early stage as being an essential preliminary to any formal proposal that is made to the Council's Committees,*

for it provides an opportunity not only to look at the intrinsic merit and wider interest of the scheme, but to discuss the kind of local support that would be available in what we regard as a joint enterprise. The Council therefore, intends to respond to initial inquiries by setting up such local meetings. The Council's committees would then consider the proposal, along with others, looking particularly at the extent to which the project might contribute to a wider understanding of curriculum development and its appraisal, and bearing in mind other claims upon the Council's annual budget.'[31]

The Schools Council and Local Curriculum Development

The decision to extend the Council's services and its contribution to local curriculum development marks a significant shift away from the emphasis on central initiative and control which characterized its earlier projects. The factor most responsible for this shift was the embarrassing presence of so many Schools Council materials, unused and gathering dust, in school stock cupboards. In Kenneth Richmond's words 'the rule seems to be that curriculum development is likely to get nowhere unless in the long run it interprets itself as teacher development.'[32]

The new Schools Council project Learning through Science has the specific task of trying to solve the challenge of successful dissemination, and plans to do this in three ways:

(a) by working through headteachers;

(b) by providing help with resources;

(c) by attempting to produce materials for use by children.[33]

In the Newsletter, the project organisers discuss the first of these proposals more fully:

'One of the most difficult things for schools to do is to make decisions. We feel that if the decisions are made collectively then they will become easier to make and more effective. The document we have written discusses this decision-making process. The need is for the staff of each primary and middle school to draft and implement its own policy for science, suited to the needs of its own children and its own school working conditions and environment: in other words, to take important decisions.

Obviously, the prime mover in such a development will be the headteacher. He or She has a clear responsibility to create a school climate that helps all members of staff to realise that they should have a stake in what is developed for the children's benefit. In the first place, the head needs to consider the reasons why scientific experience is essential.

Of course, if the headteacher canvasses an expression of everyone's ideas and opinions, as is essential, this can take up a great deal of time. It is necessary to subdivide a large staf into smaller working groups for preliminary work on certain areas, which will accept responsibility for delegated tasks. Certainly, help can be sought from those holding posts of responsibility, including the deputy head. They can make studies of publications and articles likely to aid planning, undertake preliminary consideration of controversial matters, give advice concerning individual teachers' problems and take forward new ideas for an initial airing at main staff meetings.

From such a co-operative venture, a school policy for science should emerge. This will not be a syllabus but a document constructed by the team which is to implement its contents. It should make clear to members of the staff what is required of them and of their children and offer them many ideas, yet leave them free to take up those most fitting for their own classes in their particular schools environment. If it is well written, the policy document will contain guidance on objectives for teaching science, discuss suitable scientific experiences to put before children, consider school organisation (both at school and at classroom level) and look at ways of evaluating children's work and of recording their progress.

The Learning through Science team's policy document acts as a guide to a school staff engaged in such policy-making. It has been sent out to a large number of regional groups in England, Scotland and Wales who are at present engaged in discussing its contents. From these groups the team looks forward to receiving informed comment and criticism which will help in the development and extension of the document and in its reconstitution as an astringent and helpful paper which, it is hoped, will prove useful to all primary and middle school staff.'

It seems quite clear that if central or regional government authority is going to lend its approval to this de facto move towards teacher and school-band curriculum development, it will have to re-deploy its financial support away from university departments of education and educational research institutions and improve the staffing levels of schools and the budgets of local teachers' centres. A similar move has been recommended in England as regards the pre-service training of teachers: less emphasis - and therefore money - is to be given to university-based tutors, and more emphasis and money given to senior teachers in the surrounding schools who are to be released from part of their normal teaching duties in order to tutor the students who come to them on teaching-practice.

Three Current Pre-Occupations of Curriculum Development

The 1978 Service Conference on Primary Education,[34] while endorsing the trends noted by the OECD Handbook towards an expanded curriculum, an emphasis on social objectives, and an appropriately organised learning environment, raised three further tasks for curriculum development which can profitably be discussed in the context of an ACO Workshop.

From Pre-School to School

The first is to improve continuity between pre-school education and primary school 'proper'. It is taken for granted that some form of universal, free, pre-school provision is a good thing. In fact in 1976 there were 70,5 places per 100 children aged between 3 and 6 in the F.R.G., an enormous increase since 1970 when the corresponding percentage was only 38,4. The averages, however, conceal considerable regional variations, from almost 100% in some parts to less than 50% in others. The problem of whether or not to expand the provision of pre-school education in countries which do not yet have universal primary education, and the problem of how to distribute pre-school education in the interests of social justice in such countries are subjects which demand to be included in any comprehensive debate on the primary school curriculum.

The 1969 Frankfurt Primary School Conference recommended the creation of an 'entry-stage' ('Eingangsstufe') which would replace the last year of kindergarten and the first year of primary school, combining the advantages of the former (constructive play, informal atmosphere, social learning) with those of the latter (carefully structured and sequenced introduction to cognitive learning). An experimental project at the Stuttgart Carl-Benz school followed exactly this plan, and the city-state of Hamburg has recently introduced a pre-school year (Vorschule) to bridge the gap between kindergarten and primary Grade 1. A prominent feature of the curriculum for these 5 and 6 year old children is that learning would be stimulated by introducing the children to important real-life situations rather than encouraging them to escape into a fairy-tale world of make-believe. The list of situations proposed by a group in Berlin started with 'having breakfast at home', 'discovering where one's parents work and what work they do', etc. A similar set of materials produced by a group in Munich has a unit on 'rubbish', it starts with an examination of the contents of a dustbin but goes on to study the environmental problems of re-cycling waste.

Perhaps more important than asking where early childhood education should take place, and what the content should be, is the 'social engineering' question of how far such education should or can enable children from a 'deprived' background to 'catch up' with their peers. Experimental projects in the F.R.G. and the Educational Priority Areas project in England (1969-71) took their lead from the 'compensatory education' movement in the U.S., known perhaps best by the project Operation Headstart and children's television series such as Sesame Street (the latter, dubbed into German, is still the main daily children's television programme in the F.R.G., today). Those with wide

experience of compensatory education projects agree, in Bernstein's succinct phrase, that 'education cannot compensate for society.'[35] Even when its focus is only on school failure, compensatory education cannot go beyond the limits set by such factors as health, housing, the physical environment, employment opportunities and rates of pay:

> *'Pre-school education.... will have no power to provide the educational opportunities which can lead to increased life chances without a great deal of attention being given to the structure of those systems which regulate access to education and occupations.'*[36]

The concept of deprivation itself has also been attacked, the notion that 'children's successful development requires that certain deficiencies in their parents or background culture be made good'. Poulton and James note that 'the process of making good is designed exclusively in terms of the requirements of the professional educator', i.e. the teacher's cultural values are automatically assumed to be the valid standard. They make the further practical point that intervention programmes which ride roughshod over children's 'deprived' background are likely to have only a temporary impact on the child's progress. The application of these conclusions to the 'compensatory' character of education in Africa raises thorny problems, particularly where the contrast between the culture of the home and the culture of the school is so great, and also where after a few years in school the 'deprived' child reverts definitively to his 'deprived' environment. On the basis of their practical experience in England Poulton and James offer an interesting compromise for our consideration:

> *'We do not deny the importance of supporting families in need but draw attention to the way in which the support is offered and maintained. If it is offered on the provider's terms, then there is a strong possibility that the potential self-realisation for further intellectual growth....will be stunted... The fusion of the family experience, through early education and well into full-time schooling must be seen as a gradual process starting at the nursery stage, or before, if the positive values of each situation are to be retained. It would appear that the movement of the schools towards the community, on the community's terms, offers the best chance of a successful fusion taking place.'*[37]

Parental Participation

This brings us directly to the second preoccupation of the Sevres conference: how to open up the school to its environment, to the parents and the community. Two aspects of this are discussed elsewhere in the paper - the difficulties of involving parents and community in the curriculum development process itself, and progress in relating the curriculum to real life outside the classroom. There has, however, been another significant development in English and West German primary schools, as elsewhere: the participation of parents as unpaid helpers in primary school classrooms. In their survey the Inspectorate in England found that parents were helping in

nearly 1/3 of the 7 year old classes and in just under 1/5 of the 9 and 11 year old classes; in Hamburg there were over 1,000 parents working in some 86 primary schools in 1976.[38] In both cases the parents' functions were to help small groups of children under the teacher's guidance, e.g. to hear them read, to help with outside visits, with the children's welfare, etc. Parents interviewed said that they found the insights gained into their children's learning extremely valuable.

Individual Progress and National Standards

The third main theme debated at Sevres is in effect the next stage of the 'compensatory education' debate: how to organise the structure and content of the curriculum so that all children have the best possible chance to learn. In other words, what compromise is to be struck between emphasis on an individual pupil's progress and 'standards' which are common to all. It would seem fair to claim that developments in favour of the individual pupil have gone considerably further in England than in the F.R.G. For example, only now is a consensus emerging in the F.R.G., that formal report cards are unsuitable for pupils in Grades 1 and 2.[39] In many of the Lander (States) children still receive marks for each separate subject, and the education spokesman of the Christian Democrat Party recently called for the re-introduction of marks for hard work, tidiness, attentiveness, and good behaviour. The kind of report desired by the reformers, on the other hand, would list the number of lessons a child missed through the teacher's absence as well as through his own absence, an emphasis on what the child needs rather than on what he lacks, but such reports are still far from gaining wide acceptance. Similarly, the advocates of automatic promotion through the four years of primary school in the F.R.G., still find themselves in the minority.

In England opposition to what was felt to be the 'soft-centredness' of progressive education was given popular expression in the series of 'Black Paper' pamphlets published since 1969. As these were mainly polemical in nature, the movement grasped at what it saw as the hard confirmatory evidence provided by the 'Bennett Report', Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress,[40] published in 1976. The Times Educational Supplement noted that interpreting the report as a condemnation of informal primary education 'owes more to the present educational climate than to any profound evaluation of Bennett's work.'

Bennett and his team investigated 950 Grade 3 and 4 children in North East England with the aims of discovering whether differences in teaching styles differentially affected the cognitive and emotional development of pupils, and, a related aim, whether different types of pupil performed better under certain teaching styles. The report concluded that 'pupils who are taught formally show superior progress in the basic subjects, are no worse in imaginative story-writing, and are less prone to make grammatical errors'. He did add, however, that 'this fairly dismal picture of achievement in informal classrooms is brightened by one (where) it was clear that

the teaching was clearly structured and sequenced.' In the same issue of the T.E.S., a number of distinguished educationists detailed their objections to Bennett's methodology and conclusions, one point being that the children had been tested in a limited number of strictly cognitive skills only, thus leaving unanswered the question of whether informal methods gained superior results where social and indeed other cognitive skills were concerned. Bennett himself makes the point that:

> *'it is not the informal methods themselves that are at fault, but the ways in which such methods are often put into practice. It is generally accepted that to operate a successful informal approach is difficult, calling for a high level of teaching and organisational skills.'*[41]

If this is true in the context of countries fortunate enough to be able to give their primary school teachers at least two if not three years of training after success at G.C.E. Advanced level or its equivalent, it is surely even more true in less privileged countries. For the latter the important question then arises of making a practical compromise between educational methods that might be desirable in theory, and the teaching skills of which the average classroom teacher is capable. Looking back on his experience of training resourceful teachers in a rural environment in the Sudan, V.L. Griffiths[42] argues persuasively that it is not necessary to insist on C.E. Beeby's[43] fourth stage of 'meaning' in order to have good teachers, particularly in societies where there are pronounced contrasts between local cultural norms and those implicit in more extreme 'child-centred' methods.

Since HM Inspectorate's decision to conduct their survey and the setting up of an Assessment Unit might be taken as hints of official support for public anxiety about 'falling standards', it should be stressed that the results from the N.F.E.R. reading tests which the Inspectors administered were 'consistent with a rising trend in reading standards between 1955 and 1976/77.'[44] The absence of comparable data for other subjects precluded a judgement on whether the standard, for example in mathematics, was lower or higher than it had been before. What they did do, however, was to ask class teachers to identify, within their own classes,

> *'groups of more able, average and less able children. An assessment was then made of the degree of match between the standard of work children in the groups were doing and that which they were considered by HMI to be capable of doing in each subject. HMI made their judgement as a result of examining what the children had done and how well they had done it. In almost all the cases where work was not reasonably matched to children's capabilities this was because it was insufficiently demanding. The more able children in a class were more likely than other children to be doing work that was too easy for them.*

> *The part of the curriculum most consistently well matched to the children's abilities was reading. Mathematics was close behind for the average and less able children but, though highly placed, did not show up quite as well for the more able children in a class. The work in observational and experimental science was, at all ages and for each ability group, most commonly found to be less well matched to the children's capabilities than work in any other aspect of the curriculum.'*

The Inspectors made an interesting observation concerning the connection between 'standards' and the way staff are deployed in a given school. In over 75% of classes, at least one other teacher also taught the class, the subject in most cases being music, P.E. or English by contrast, teachers with special curricula or organisational responsibilities were having a noticeable effect on the work of the whole school in only a quarter of the schools. Yet

> *'where teachers with special responsibilities have a strong influence on the work of the school this was strongly associated with a good match of work to the children's capabilities at all ages at all abilities. This was particularly noticeable in the case of the more able pupils. This suggests that when a teacher with a special responsibility is knowledgeable and able to give a strong lead in planning and carrying out a programme of work, the levels of expectation of what children are capable of doing are effectively raised.'*[45]

the obvious conclusion is the need for a policy of staff deployment in which the strengths of individual teachers are extended.

A final comment on the Bennett Report and its aftermath is that the anxiety about falling academic standards reflects an underlying lack of certainty about what schools are really for. The Government's Green Paper, referred to earlier, in its section on aims did nothing to suggest any unifying and commanding purpose for education. In their submission to the D.E.S. the Association of Christian Teachers say that:

> *'It is possible to see who shouted loudest...the aim of education appears to be this: to prepare the individual child for life in a society dependant on productive industry and international trade; a society of producers and consumers which happens to have a cultural, political and ethical past from which useful lessons might be learned, and which now happen to be multiracial.'*

The authors go on to say that as christians they 'reject the idea that their job is merely to provide the skills, information and experience which will serve the ends of a smooth-running community of happy materialists.'[46]

The lack of consensus in England, and presumably also in the F.R.G., over any detailed list of values to be transmitted leaves us with a child-centred developmental approach as the safest lowest common denominator,[47] although this too is challenged by an influential group of philosophers of education. The point to be stressed in connection with this ACO Workshop is that curriculum packages or parts of packages have been imported from Europe into Africa without sufficient attention being paid to the acceptability of their underlying aims and value assumptions. For example, the first two aims of the American social science package Man, A Course of Study are for the pupil to discover 'what is human about man?' and 'how did he get that way?' Aims acceptable to all, no doubt. But what about the third aim, 'How can we make man more human?' This surely implies a much more 'man centred' view of the world than most which prevail outside the highly secular western industrialised nations.

Control over the Curriculum and its Development

The Extent of Government Control

The question of who controls the curriculum and its development is not as straightforward as it seems at first sight. In the FRG the curriculum is subject to a high degree of government control, not at national level, but at the level of the Ministry of Education of each of the 11 Lander or States which together make up the Federal Republic. What is to be taught in the primary schools of the city State of Hamburg, for example, is all to be found in a book entitled 'Guidelines and Syllabuses' issued by the School Office/Authority. In England legal control is vested in local government education authorites (LEAs), but they have in practice delegated controlling powers to each individual headteacher. As one might expect, there is therefore an almost infinite range of variation in curriculum. The Inspectors in their survey found schemes of work for English and Mathematics in about 85% of schools; 75% had written guidelines for religious education, but fewer than half the schools had schemes of work in any of the other subjects. This freedom - which strikes many educators in the FRG and elsewhere as being close to anarchy - is, however, subject to the strong constraint of public examinations and their common syllabuses. It is true, of course, that the removal of a selective examination at 11-plus in nearly all areas of England has weakened the pressure to confirm to a common curriculum; conversely, the establishment by the Department of Education and Science of an unit to assess pupil performance throughout the country can be seen as a move to prevent or oppose too wide fluctuations from national norms, at least in mathematical and language skills.

The Extent of Community Control

In his first and widely respected booklet on Curriculum Development Hawes emphasises the importance of bringing parents and the community into the curriculum development process at least at the stage when general aims are being discussed.[49] It is salutary to point out how unsuccessful we in Europe have been at achieving this step towards more democracy in education. The evolution of the so-called recent 'Great Debate' on education in England, as described by Reid,[50] is evidence of this. The then Prime Minister insisted that

> *'the debate was not to be confined to those professionally concerned with education, but was to give full opportunity for employers and trades unions, and parents, as well as teachers and administrators, to make their views known.'*[51]

What happened in practice was that the original policy document which originated within the D.E.S. - known subsequently as the "Yellow Book" - defined the debate in terms of 4 'problems', one of which was 'the issue of the basic approach to teaching the 3Rs in primary schools. 'Although eight one-day regional meetings were held in spring 1977, and although a considerable amount of publicity was given to the issue by the press and television, the agenda of debate remained the one worked out at an initial series of meetings between Ministry officials and 'a limited number of educational and industrial organisations', and the participants for the most part were the leaders of influential pressure groups whose views were already well known. The next stage in the so-called debate was that a Green Paper, Education in School: A consultative Document[52] was presented to parliament by the Minister. So much - or rather so little - for parental participation.

Control by Teachers and Experts

While stressing that curriculum development cannot succeed unless practising teachers are heavily involved in the process, Hawes concedes that certain tasks must be delegated to 'experts'. It seems that the academic expert in the FRG is proportionately much more influential than his counterpart in England in the curriculum development process. The OECD Handbook, for example, claims that

> *'In consequence of...the traditional Germanic esteem for academic research, the large majority of teachers are inhibited from direct participation in the development process. Anyone wishing to embark on curriculum change feels first obliged to pick a way through the dense and luxuriant forest of theoretical speculation - and this seems to deter all but the most determined explorers.'*[53]

One could also perhaps say, comparing 'expert' with expert', that the German has an academically better pedigree but far less classroom teaching experience, than his average English counterpart.

Control by the Schools Council

The Schools Council would appear to embody the proverbially English characteristics of pragmatism and compromise in that it 'siphons off' the tension which exists, for example in the FRG, between state or central government which has power over the curriculum and the research institutes or experimental schools who are conducting the innovations.

The Schools Council, which came into existence in 1964 and is financed by equal contributions from local education authorities and the Department of Education and Science, is an independent body controlled by a system of committees which have a majority of teacher members. Its purpose is to undertake in England and Wales research and development work in curricula, teaching methods and examinations in schools. It claims that it 'grew out of a recognition by all branches of the education service that co-operative machinery was needed to organise a more rapid, and more effective response to change'.

This consensus view is, not surprisingly, the one put forward in the Council's own promotional literature.[54] More critical observers point out that the original Curriculum Study Group, consisting of administrators, inspectors, and outside experts, was transformed into the Schools Council in 1964 because the powerful associations both of teachers and of local education authority administrators, recognising this threat to their professional autonomy, forced the then Minister of Education to grant them a controlling interest in the new body. The same critics go on to argue that for the most part the Schools Council tends to 'reinforce the existing definition, distribution and evaluation of knowledge', for example that it builds most of its projects round the accepted distinction between the 'academic' and the 'non-academic' curriculum; the decision not to develop the proposed 'Race Pack' of materials on racial issues within the Humanities project was interpreted as an unwillingness to tackle the problem of social control in contemporary British society. It is true that the Council set up a Working Party on the Whole Curriculum, but again the critics submit that its special status as a working party, cut off from the decision-making procedures of the committees, effectively prevented it from influencing the main organisation.

Peter Newell, writing on experimental schools in Denmark, suggests that the Schools Council projects, together with other attempts at reform in England, 'operate within a rigid and hardly changing structure...which in no way reflects the aspirations of a developing democracy. It is this right to make relevant, state-supported experiments with different structures which is the Danish tradition.'[55]

Control in the Schools

Newell may be wrong in supposing that a radical structural change such as the introduction of an education voucher system and the multiplication of private experimental schools would of itself guarantee successful innovation. The evidence of recent research, reviewed usefully in Eggleston (1977), is that headteachers and classteachers are the crucial agents of curriculum change, far more decisive than outside agencies, local authorities, etc. If curriculum development is to benefit the majority of children in a given country, this can only happen when the majority of teachers become persuaded to persevere with a changed curriculum. Teachers, however, are also citizens and are often parents.

What remains to be seen in the specific context of England is whether the throwing open of the formerly 'secret garden' of curriculum to public debate will eventually prove to have created a new situation where the teachers, consciously or unconsciously, are more responsive to the pressures for change in society as a whole. Reid believes that

> *'though the curriculum decision-makers may feel that they are initiating debates the better to keep control of the curriculum in their own hands, appeals to the community are symptomatic of a major shift in the relationship between society and the school curriculum. That shift is leading to the breakdown of traditional ways of deciding what should be learned by whom and under what circumstances, and to the creation of opportunities for reconceiving the nature of curriculum tasks and the way they should be performed. What use is made of those opportunities depends on how well, as a community, we learn to think about the curriculum.'*[56]

Controlling the Curriculum and its Ideology in Africa

Rather than attempt to comment on the locus of control over the curriculum and its development in individual African countries, may I ask you to apply the questions we have been considering to the situation with which you are most familiar? How is control over the curriculum distributed between politicians, ministry officials, the Curriculum Development Centre, the inspectorate, headmasters, classroom teachers, parents, the community and - not least - the children themselves? Has this balance of power changed substantially since colonial times? If so, in whose favour? Do you see yourself, as a citizen and parent as well as a 'curriculum developer' accepting, resisting or promoting this change? Within the Curriculum Development Centre where you work, how is control over the programme of work shared between researchers who have little classroom experience and classroom teachers who know little about research? Is it valid to argue that since many teachers in Africa are under-educated and under-trained, they cannot become active partners in determining new curricula, besides which they are used to being told what to do?

Beyond these questions lies the equally important issue, touched on in the introductory section and elsewhere, that every curriculum has its own ideology or mixture of ideologies. Kohlberg and Mayer,[57] for example, distinguish broadly between three powerful educational ideologies, to each of which there is a corresponding psychological theory of child development:

(a) 'romantic' ideology, linked with 'maturationist' theory;

(b) 'cultural transmission' ideology, linked with 'associationistic' learning theory

(c) 'progressive' ideology, linked with 'cognitive-developmental' learning theory.

Faced with a new English or Mathematics course, the curriculum developer's attention is drawn first to the course's contents, next to its methods, less to the learning theory on which it is based, and hardly at all to the ideology which it embodies. And yet it is at this deepest level that the task of making the curriculum 'authentic' in a given country will be won or lost. We admit the difficulties involved in persuading 'traditional' teachers to adopt 'discovery learning' methods, but may this not be a symptom of a less obvious problem, namely that we the curriculum developers have not yet resolved in our own minds whether we are committed to the highly individualistic ideology with which discovery learning has so far been linked?

Concluding remarks: The Threat of Development by Neglect

Let me conclude by stirring up a controversy within our own ranks that is, to ask what proportion of the existing educational budget should be allocated to primary education. A current slogan among teachers and parents in the FRG is 'for one hour a week the teacher is mine', which is a way of demanding a pupil: teacher ratio of 25:1 and a timetable of 25 lessons per week. If the pupil: teacher ratio and pupil: teacher contact time are improved in the early 1980s in the FRG and in England, it will not be because the secondary and tertiary sectors of education have made sacrifices, nor because the overall budget has been increased by offering jobs to currently unemployed teachers. It will only come about as a by-product of the falling birth-rate. Teachers who are already employed cannot easily be dismissed, therefore in time they will have fewer children to teach. If in Europe these essential prerequisites for improving the quality of primary school education can only be obtained by the chance phenomenon of a falling birth-rate, what are the defenders of quality in the primary school curriculum in Africa going to do in the face of a rising birth-rate and growing expectations of universal primary education?

NOTES

1. Handbook on Curriculum Development. Paris: OECD, 1975, p.9.
2. Hodgkin, R.A. Born Curious. London: Wiley, 1976, p.86.
3. See, for example, Jackson, P. Life in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.
4. See, for example, Keddie, N. 'Classroom Knowledge'. In Young, M.F.D. (ed.) Knowledge and Control. London: Collier-Macmillan, 1971, pp.133-160; and the essays in Gleeson, D. (ed.) Identity and Structure: Issues in the Sociology of Education. Nafferton: Studies in Education Ltd., 1977.
5. Havelock, R.G. 'The Utilisation of Educational Research and Development'. Reprinted in Harris, A., Lawn, M., and Prescott, W. Curriculum Innovation. Longon: Croom Helm and Open University Press, 1975, pp.312-328.
6. Innovation: Problems and Possibilities. Educational Studies: A Second Level Course. Curriculum Design and Development, Units 22 and 23. Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1976, p.40ff.
7. Handbook. op. cit. pp.27-28.
8. Quoted in Richmond, W.K. Education in Britain since 1944. London: Methuen, 1978, p.23.
9. Dialogue. Schools Council Newsletter No.24, Spring 1977, p.6.
10. Schools Council Newsletter No.30, Summer 1979, p.5.
11. Dialogue. Schools Council Newsletter No.21, Autumn 1975, p.8
12. Mackay, D., Thompson, B., and Schaub, P. Breakthrough to Literacy. Teacher's Manual. Schools Council Programme in Linguistics and Language Teaching. London: Longman, 1970, p.3.
13. A Language for Life. (Bullock Report). Department of Education and Science. Longon: HMSO, 1975.
14. Language Across the Curriculum. Guidelines for Schools. National Association for the Teaching of English, in association with Ward Lock Education. London, 1976, p.14.
15. Planungsgruppe Modellversuch 'Eingangsstufe Carl-Benz-Schule'. Bericht. Stuttgart, 1973. (mimeogr.)
16. 'Marburger Grundschulprojekt'. Grundschule. 1978/2.

17. Children and their Primary Schools. (Plowden Report). A Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England). Department of Education and Science. London: HMSO, 1967.

18. Ibid. pp.103-106.

19. Deutscher Bildungsrat. Empfehlungen der Bildungskommission. Strukturplan fur das Bildungswesen. Bonn, 1970, p.136.

20. Bennwitz, H. and Weinert, F.E. (eds.) CIEL - Ein Forderungsprogram zur Elementarerziehung und seine wissenschaftlichen Voraussetzungen. Gottingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1973.

21. Block, J. 'Die Adaption auslandischer Curricula im naturwissenschaftlichen Bereich fur den Gebrauch in Schulen der Bundesrepublic'. Chapter 3 in Bloch, J., HauBler, P. et al. Curriculum Naturwissenschaft. Cologne: Aulis-Verlag, 1975, pp.85-129.

22. Hawes, H. Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools. London: Longman, 1979

23. Classen-Bauer, I., Hausmann, G. and In Ku Kim. Curriculum-Entwicklung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Bonn: Der Bundesminister fur Bildung und Wissenschaft, 1975.

24. Handbook. op.cit. p.25.

25. Primary Education in England. A Survey of HM Inspectors of Schools. Department of Education and Science. London: HMSO, 1978. All subsequent quotations are taken from the Press Notice, 26.9.78.

26. See, for example, MacDonald-Ross, M. 'Behavioural Objectives - A Critical Review' Instructional Science. 2 (1973), pp.1-52; Parlett, M. and Hamilton, D. 'Evaluation as Illumination'. Occasional Paper No.9. University of Edinburgh Centre for Research in Educational Sciences. 1972.

27. Dialogue. Schools Council Newsletter No.14, Summer 1973, p.12.

28. See, for example, 'Marburger Grundschulprojekt'. op.cit.

29. Handbook. op.cit. p.33

30. This section is based on the discussion of Teachers' Centres in Innovation at the Local Level. Unit 25 of the Open University Course on Curriculum Design and Development. Milton Keynes: Open University Press, 1976, p.69ff.

31. Dialogue. Schools Council Newsletter No.20, Summer 1975, p.7.

32. Richmond, W.K. op.cit.

33. The following section is taken from the account of the project Learning Through Science in the Schools Council Newsletter No.30, Summer 1979, pp.5-7.

34. See the brief report in Grundschule. 1978/11, p.90.

35. New Society. 26.2.70.

36. Poulton, G. and James, T. Pre-School Learning in the Community: Strategies for Change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975, p.viii.

37. Ibid. p.113.

38. Grundschule. 1978/1, p.35.

39. 'Neue Zeugnisse...aber wie?' Grundschule. 1978/3.

40. Bennett, N. Teaching Styles and Pupil Progress. London: Open Books, 1976.

41. Times Educational Supplement. 30.4.76.

42. Griffiths, V. Teacher-Centred. London: Longman, 1975.

43. Beeby, C. The Quality of Education in Developing Countries. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1965.

44. Primary Education in England. op.cit. p.17ff.

45. Ibid. p.20

46. Education in schools: a Christian Rejoinder. London: Association of Christian Teachers, 1977.

47. Richmond, W.K. op.cit. p.64.

48. See, for example, Dearden, R. The Philosophy of Primary Education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1968.

49. Hawes, H. Planning the Primary School Curriculum in Developing Countries. Paris: Unesco-IIEP, 1972, p.27.

50. Reid, W. Thinking About the Curriculum. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. See introductory chapter 'Curriculum debates and Curriculum Studies'.

51. Education in Schools: A Consultative Document. Cmnd. 6869. London: HMSO, 1977, p.2.

52. Ibid.

53. Handbook. op.cit. p.24.

54. A summary of the critical viewpoint is reported in Eggleston, J. The Sociology of the School Curriculum. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1977, p.129ff.

55. Newell, P. 'Time for a Change?' Times Educational Supplement. 29.9.78.

56. Reid, W. op. cit. p.13.

57. Kohlberg, L. and Meyer, R. 'Development as the Aim of Education'. Harvard Educational Review. 4 (1972), pp.449-496.

DEVELOPING LANGUAGE SKILLS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Procedure:

Dr. PAI Obanya, the Chairman of the group presented a suggested work schedule which was discussed and approved after some suggested additions.

Work Schedule

1. Self Introduction:-
   - Name/Address
   - Type of training
   - Kind and length of experience
   - Current curriculum development efforts, etc.

2. Typology of Language Situations/Language in Early Childhood Education in the Countries Represented

   (Members of Group Interviewing fellow participants and drawing up a chart.)

3. Thoughts on Language Teaching in Early Childhood Education (Ms. Jones).

4. Early Childhood Language Programmes at KIE (Ms. Gatua)

5. Material production for Early Childhood Language Education in other countries.

6. Curriculum Guidelines (work in small groups on curriculum guidelines related to peculiar situations).

7. Discussion/Modification of Curriculum Guidelines Produced by the groups.

8. Consideration of (and possible Production) of Sample Curriculum Materials: e.g.

   (i) Language Games

   (ii) Pre-Reading Materials/Reading Materials.

   (iii) Audio-Oral Materials

   (iv) Teachers' Guides for Early Childhood Language Teaching.

Profile of Language Situation in Various African Countries

The profile is intended to give a clear picture of the language situation/language education policies/practices in the various African Countries represented at the workshop. The participants began work by interviewing each other as well as other people with a view to obtaining some background information about what is happening in each of the countries.

Having assembled the various background information, the group then mapped them out on a chart which is here attached.

The chart indicates the following:

- Estimated population of the country
- Estimated number of languages in the country
- National language(s)
- Official language(s)
- Language of instruction at primary level
- Other languages taught at primary level.

As parts of the background presentation, two papers were laid by Miss E. Gatua and Miss B. Jones respectively. Miss Gatua's paper is entitled. "Early Childhood language programme at the Kenya Institute of Education", it deals with pre-school language programmes as well as with language situation in primary schools and goes on to talk about the materials being developed in the mother tongue (cf T.K.K. series). The title of Miss Jones paper is "Developing language skills in Early Childhood", bearing the sub-title. (Curriculum Design & Production of Related Samples Material) Example from Cameroon.

In a general way, her paper deals with the problems of language teaching, language skills and the development of the latter and curriculum design.

Mr. Mwale (Zambia) also talked about the problem of Curriculum Development in Zambia and the work that their centre is doing on the 7 selected national languages.

LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN AFRICA

A = Home Language
B = Area Language
C = European Language
D = Another (distant) African Language
E = Arabic
F = Official Non-European Language

COUNTRY	Est Pop.	Est. No. of Lang.	Nat. Lang.	Off. Lang.	Language of Instruction								Other Language Taught							
					P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8
1. Botswana	0.743M	5	B	C	B	B	B	C	C	C	C		C	C	C	B	B	B	B	-
2. Burundi	4.0M	1	A	A/C	A	A	A	A	A	A	-	-	-	-	C	C	C	C	-	-
3. Cameroon	6.5M	-	C1/C2	C1/C2	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	-	-	-	-	-	C2	C2	C2	-	-
4. Ethiopia	28.0M	75	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	-	-	-	-	-	C	C	C	-	-
5. Gambia	0.5M	*10(3)	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	-	-	E	E	E	E	E	E	-	-
6. Ghana	10.0M	11	C	C	A/B	A/B	A/B	C	C	C	-	-	C	C	C	A/B	A/B	A/B	-	-
7. Kenya	14.5M	40	F	C	A	A	A	C	C	C	C	-	C/F	C/F	C/F	C/F	C/F	C/F	C/F	-
8. Lesotho	2.0M	1	A	A/C	A	A	A	A	C	C	C	-	C	C	C	C	A	A	A	-
9. Liberia	1.5M	28	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. Malawi	5.0M	10	B	B/C	B	B	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	B	B	B
11. Mauritius	1.0M	12	B/A	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	-	-	A/C2	A/C2	A/C2	A/C2	A/C2	A/C2	-	-
12. Nigeria	80.0M	200	C	C	A	A	A	C	C	C	-	-	C	CC	C	A	A	A	-	-

170

171

13. Sierra Leone	3.0M	13	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14. Swaziland	0.6M	3	B	C	B	B	B	B	C	C	C	-	C	C	C	C	B	B	B	-
15. Tanzania	17.0M	125	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	-	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	-
16. Uganda	10.0M	**45	C	C	A/B	A/B	A/B	C	C	C	C	-	C	C	C	A/B	A/B	A/B	A/B	-
17. Zambia	6.0M	***40	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	-	A/B	A/B	A/B	A/B	A/B	A/B	A/B	-

*10(3) = out of the 10 languages 3 are being promoted
**45(6) = out of the 45 languages 6 are being promoted
***40(7) = out of the 40 languages 7 are being promoted

Division into Sub-Groups:

The division into sub-groups followed and was based on the pattern of the three main areas - delimited in the language profile.

These are:
1. Home language or Mother Tongue (HL)
2. Area Language (A L)
3. European Language (EL).

Whereas (EL) is the language of instruction throughout the whole primary course, for instance in the case of the Gambia, Liberia and SierraLeone, in the majority of the cases it is either (HL) or (AL) or both which serves as the medium of instruction in the first three or four years of the primary course. (AL) serves as the medium of instruction throughout the whole primary course in two instances, e.g. Ethiopia & Tanzania. The task assigned to each of the three sub-groups was to study and work on the possibilities of developing curricula guidelines in each of the three delimited areas viz. (HL), (AL) and (EL).

Membership of the groups is as follows:

(a) Sub-group 1 - Home language (HL)
- Consultant: E. Gatua - KENYA
- Participants: M. Bwimana - Burundi
G.S. Mwale - Zambia
H. Sesay - SierraLeone
E. Tuwangye - Uganda
M. Wamwongo - Kenya

(b) Sub-Group 2: Area Language (AL)
Consultants: Dr. Pai Obanya - Nigeria
K. Maane - Gambia
Participants: G. Aberra - Ethiopia
S.S. Jatta - Gambia
P. Kiarie - Kenya
M. Kimani - Kenya
M. M'Kweteza - Malawi
M. Ojuando - Kenya

(c) Sub-Group 3: European language (EL)
Consultant: B. Jones - Cameroon
Participants: M.M. Gakunga - Kenya
P.M. Kaphe - Lesotho
Mto Mugambi A.F.- Kenya
L. Wandera - Kenya

Guidelines Proposed:

The procedure in each of the three sub-groups was to first define the concepts (HL), (AL) and (EL), after which the characteristics of learners in pre-school and primary school were equally defined.

Attempts were then made in each sub-group, to set out specific learning objectives, in both the pre-school and primary school domains, which are to be accomplished in accordance with the age and stage the learners have reached.

These objectives are contained in the three documents the sub-groups have produced.

In addition to the objectives, the groups have equally timed to specify the type of contents - the objectives should have, as well as the sort of materials and methods that can be deployed to drive the objectives home.

Rationale for production of Materials:

Sub-Group B: In this group the rationale has been to produce materials only in those areas where participants encounter difficulties and would therefore need some sort training to enable them surmount those difficulties. Encouragement was therefore given to participants to try their hands at producing materials in those areas.

Sub-Group C: Here the participants directed their efforts into producing materials for the first English lessons at primary one level.

LIST OF SAMPLE MATERIALS PRODUCED

Sub-Group A: Home Languages

Title	*Description/Purpose*	*Producer's*
1. Mupmari mati m	Stories for P1	Hannah Sesay Sierra Leone
2. K n ?	Reading Activity for P1	Hannah Sesay Sierra Leone
3. Sewelo la Malonda Ang'ombe	Cattle buying and selling game for language reading practice for P2 and P3	Goodson Mwale Zambia
4. Migani 'inkino	A book of tales and language games for P2 and P3	Bwimana M. Burundi
5. Dusome	Reading sentences and build them with cut words for P1	Bwimana M. Burundi
6. Ducape	A book of pupils drawing with a sentence for each drawing/for P1 and P2.	Bwimana M. Burundi
7. Kumenya ico uwundi yari kuvuga	Cartoons for P1 or P2.	Bwimana M. Burundi
8. Sewelo lazipatso	Vocabulary tree game for language reading practice for P1	Goodson Mwale/ Zambia Hannah Sesay/ Sierra Leone
9. Mwambi wa Nsingano ndi uzi	A story about Needle and cotton thread. The story projects an argument about who does more work than the other. Needle or cotton thread? P3	Goodson Mwale/ Zambia
10. Cifukwa Cimene Nthiwatiwa ali ndi Khosi lalitali	A story about why an ostrich has a long neck for P2 and P3	Goodson Mwale/ Zambia

Title	Description/Purpose	Producer(s)
11. Kuruga aha Rwokubanza	Supplementary Reader class library for P2	E. Tuwaugye Uganda.
12. Reading	Reading supplementary material-Reading and matching exercise for P1 and P2.	E. Tuwangye Uganda
13. Picture/Story Reading chart	Reading supplementary material - Reading and comprehension exercise for P1 and 2	E. Tuwangye Uganda
14. Word Tray	Reading material. Picture/word matching exercise for P1.	E. Tuwangye Uganda
15. Handiika ahari ebi	Picture cards - topics for Creative writing exercises for P2 and P3.	E. Tuwangye Uganda
16. Picture Talk material	Picture for use in Oral Expression development for Pre-School and P1.	E. Tuwangye Uganda
17. Eduuka Yaitu	Story based on class shop - Reading Supplementary material for P1 and P2.	E. Tuwangye Uganda
18. Kwa Nyamu Cia Githaka	A multipurpose picture with accompaning story and comprehension questions - for developing Oral Expression, Reading and Writing skills for P2.	Miss E. Gatua Kenya and E. Tuwangye Uganda
19. Shoma	Picture/word comprehension questions reading material for development of Oral Expression/Reading and writing skills for P1 and P2.	E. Tuwangye Uganda

	Title	Description/Purpose	Producers
20.	Picture/word material	Picture word material for developing oral expression, auditory discrimination and visual discrimination for Pre-School and P1	M. Wamwongo Kenya
21.	Flannel Board pictures	Pictures for development of oral expression and reading skills for P1 and Pre-School	Miss E. Gatua Kenya and E. Tuwangye Uganda
22.	Rugano rwa Tuiritu Tutatu tunini	Reading material story with comprehension questions	Miss E. Gatua Kenya
23.	Tumathako twa Ruthigani rwa Gikuyu	Traditional games for development of vocabulary, memory auditory discrimination, and visual discrimination. Also played for pleasure and transmission of culture	Miss E. Gatua Kenya
24.	Jigsaw	Teacher made jigsaw. For visual discrimination, hand eye-co-ordination and hand muscle development, for Pre-School and P1	E. Tuwangye Uganda

Sample Materials Produced: Sub-Group B: Area Languages

	Title	Description/Purpose	Producers
1.	Kee Tilimbaloo	A story in Mandinka for Primary I	K. Maane & S.S. Jatta
2.	Nyimbo na Michezo	A collection of poems and songs in Kiswahili for Primary I	M.W. Kimani
3.		An illustrated Ambaric reader for Primary II	Ato Gulilat Aberra
4.	Hamida	Training in self-expression in Kiswahili for Primary II	Margaret Ojuando
5.	Kukula ndi Mwambo	Training in chichewa phatic Ommunion for Primary I	Masanko Mkweteza
6.	Kufundisha Kiswahili	Religious concepts in Kiswahili for Pre-primary classes	Peter Kiarie wa Njoroge

Sub-Group C: European Language (EL)

Title	Description/Purpose	Producer(s)
Unit 1 of an English Medium Course	Scheme and content +sample of each type of lesson +Global items to be used as part of the unit (i.e. rhyme, dialogues, stories) +Games for consolidation work +Guidelines for constructing such a unit starting all the constraints imposed by the use of a foreign medium.	Mto Mugambi A.F. P.M. Kaphe L. Wandera B. Jones M.N. Gakunga

Group II:

Developing Scientific Behaviour, Computation and Manipulative Skills in Early Childhood.

Aims

It was decided at the group's first meeting;

(a) To separate into three different groups (Science, Mathematics and Social Studies).

(b) To work within each group on a subject oriented curriculum with a view to integrate topicwise

(c) To have periods consultations after every few working sessions so as to coordinate the work.

(d) That each group will decide what particular line to follow and to produce sample of curriculum materials

(e) To have one main activity in common, namely: the preparation of a lesson plan, running a trial in a local school, evaluating the results.

Procedures for the Common Activity:

Following a decision to work using an integrated approach:

(a) The objectives put forward were analysed by the three subject groups

(b) Similarities and areas of relationship among various objectives were looked for

(c) One objective common to the three areas was arrived at

(d) Each subject group went on its own looking for suitable topics for a common lesson

Later it was agreed that the lesson be developed around:

Theme	:	Home
Topic	:	Food
Sub-Topic	:	Naming food-stuffs

To clarify the concept of integration two short lectures on integration were delivered by Mrs. B. Marquardt and Mrs. M. Onibokun. Their papers were circulated to all the Participants.

Production of sample materials included

(a) aims and objectives of each of the three groups

(b) Lesson plans

(c) Evaluation procedures prepared by the science group

N.B. Details of these are included in a separate report "Sample Curriculum Materials for Early Childhood in Education prepared during the third Annual Workshop on Curriculum Development 16th July - 3rd August, 1979.

Evaluation and General Comments

(a) It was felt that the rationale for coming together as a group was not clear. The groups should have been informed well in advance that the main task was to produce an integrated curriculum.

(b) Viewed in terms of the objectives to be achieved the time available was too short

(c) After running trial lessons the group was of the opinion that the integrated approach is ideal for pre-school and lower primary education.

Group III: Using Local Resources and Materials for Educational Toys in African Countries

The group began with a slide show of artefacts made at pre-school workshop in Mombasa. The slides included dolls, puppets games etc., all made from local materials.

In the ensuing discussion the following points were raised:

(a) The economic constraints facing teachers were raised. (Shortage of money, materials, tool kits and glues...) This led to discussion about industrial toys and the need for improvision. It was felt that a visit to a toy manufacturer such as Furaha Toys would be useful.

(b) Questions were raised as to the difference between toys and resource materials for lower primary and "Visual Aids" for specific topics especially upper primary.

(c) It was felt that toys often played a role in learning turn instructured activities that led to the need for Visual Aids.

(d) It was felt that there was a distinct difference between artefacts made for children by teachers and those made with children.

(e) It was felt that we were severely hampered by having mainly Kenyan participants. The only non Kenyans came from Mauritius and Burundi.

(f) Questions were raised as to the direct link between toys and artefacts and curriculum development needs.

(g) Finally it was decided to formalise the discussion and look at the "Objectives of Educational Toys in Child Development..." We came out with the following objectives.

Child Development:

(a) Development of Motor Abilities,

(b) Socialization - Role play, Social Interaction, Personality Development.

(c) Enjoyment

(d) Intellectual Development of Number Concepts, Language Concepts, Scientific Concepts, Problem Solving Skills.

(e) Development of a positive attitude to learning

(f) Development of the sense of inquiry through observation and exploration

During discussion it was felt that enjoyment was a major issue because it ties together all the rest of the things, because without the enjoyment of the materials a child can learn very little from them. Enjoyment was analysed as follows:

Enjoyment — Motivation
Frustration
Competition

After having laid down the objectives it was felt that it was a good idea to list down the Activities which can reinforce them. These were listed down as follows:

Objectives of Toys and Games in Child Development

(a) Motor Activities: Large and Small
(b) Socialization: Personality Development
Role Play (make believe)
(c) Social Interaction
(d) Intellectual Development of Number Concept
Language Concept
Scientific Concept
Problem Solving

	Objectives	Activities
(a)	Motor Abilities Large and Small	hoping, climbing, sliding, balancing, swinging, fighting skipping, jumping, running, Fula hoop, Aiming, (using marbles hoop-cord, Rolling, Hopscoton, singing, games, sapsiwa
(b)	Small Motor	Ndongu, tops, Bull roarer, a stick, pegboard, Ngoni, stacking blocks, painting, spraying, printing, singing, games, collage-tearing, cutting, pasting, modelling, construction, weaving, tracing, sewing, beading.
(c)	Socialization	Role play games, (make believe) mummy - daddy, truck drivers, shops, doctors, ambassador.
(d)	Intellectual Development Number Language	Fizz Buzz/Ndongo, Mbao, Ayo Ajua, Matching games e.g. Dominoes Rhymes and Songs (counting) Gambling games, Riddles, Master mind Problem solving games, Hungman (for Language) Puzzles/ Crosswards, Number - plate games, sound games.
(e)	Inquiry/ Observation	Collection/exploration, construction, Touch, smell, taste, hear etc. Trail games (e.g. hide & seek) Treasure hunt Tracks (e.g. Animal identification)

The whole group continued to build up these activities. As some of these activities or games were mentioned, different people were taking turns to explain to the group the procedure followed when a game is being played.

Later it was suggested that it was a good idea to divide the group into smaller groups, so that each group concentrated on a certain objective, making materials, toys etc., to go with it.

There were three small groups working on:

(a) Introduction

(b) Motor Development

(c) Intellectual Development

Later it was felt that it was a good idea to visit a pre-school in a rural area and try to collect as much material as possible within the school environment, come back with them and try to make whatever apparatus one could make from the junk.

Group IV: Catering for Children with Special Needs.

The study group consisted of seven people, some of whom had particular responsibilities for Special Educational Services in their own countries and the rest were interested and keen to find out more about the field of special education.

The first meeting of the group established a plan of work and selected a rapporteur and a group leader, set the target and the procedure.

The main aims of the exercise were as follows:-

(i) Produce a number of model programmes syllabuses for teachers' and parents' use

(ii) Samples of programmes to cover a number of selected areas of special education

(iii) These programmes and syllabuses should meet the needs of children of age range from birth to nine years.

This working group did not set itself the task of producing exhaustive lists of activities to be carried out by teachers or parents with their children in need of special help but rather a model, a method of designing curriculum aimed at educators be they parents or teachers. It is the wish of the members of the group that what follows should be seen as a modest contribution to their African colleagues involved in writing up teaching and training programmes to help children with special educational needs.

Selection of the topics

Having assessed the areas of expertise and consulted the written material available in Nairobi, the working group decided to select the following areas to work on:

	Age Range*	Agent
1. The slow Learning Child/ Mentally Handicapped (Educable)	Birth-9+ Yrs.	Parent/Teacher
2. The Hearing Impaired Child (profound)	6-9 Years	Parent/Teacher
3. The Visually Impaired Child (Blind)	Birth-6 Yrs.	Day Care Centre Assistants
4. The Physically Handicapped Child (Cerebral Palsied)	Birth-6 Yrs.	Parents and Day Care Centre Assistants.

The working group wish to point out that the age ranges mentioned above are not inclusive, this means to say that the group has put forward its suggestions by focusing on a special age range but somewhere in their presentation mention is made in general terms of what should or could be done for the children at ages preceding or following the selected age range what has been written out in these programmes are suggestions and it is up to the colleges to complement, supplement and adapt these to their local contexts. The working Group did not and could not possibly come forward with a unique formula for the whole of Africa and the ideas put forward should be seen as mere suggestions.

Model of Presentation

The working group agreed that the content should be presented in two main formats:-

(i) Tabulated Programme

(ii) Streamlined/Linear guidelines

Each section has a general introduction where terms are defined, the condition identified, possible causes, prevalence and possible educational approaches to meet the child's needs. These are followed by an explanation of why and how the educational programmes were developed and the method used and towards whom these are directed. The third section consists of the programme itself either in tabulated or streamlined format (the detailed reports are contained in a separate report 'Sample Curriculum Materials for Early Childhood Education')

The working Group also decided to include a list of books and specimen sets of equipment and material that could be of some use to other colleagues. The list of books is far from being complete and they are included to help colleagues to further their knowledge.

The Working Group proceeded with its work by assigning to each member a special task on each of the selected areas. Meetings were held daily to discuss the progress of each member and add information or bring about solutions to problems that might have arisen. The rapporteur prepared interim reports for the Faculty meeting so as to keep the workshop organisers informed about the rate of progress. During the regular meetings a number of topics were mentioned in connection with the child with special needs:

The gifted child

The Socially Deprived, Socially Maladjusted Child

Segregation/Integration approach to Special Education

Parents as co-partners in the education of their children.

Community Involvement and Mobilisation of existing resources

Although all these points were of particular interest to the group as a whole, the group did not have time to work on all of them. An effort was made to include some of the issues raised in the general introduction to each of the sections covering the four selected areas of work.

A SPEECH TO BE DELIVERED BY PROF. D. ODHIAMBO, THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI, ON THE OPENING OF THE ACO'S THIRD ANNUAL WORKSHOP ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT THE KENYA INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION ON 16TH JULY, 1979

Your Excellency the Ambassador of the Federal Republic of Germany to Kenya, the Chairman of African Curriculum Organisation, Distinguished Guests, Ladies and Gentlemen.

It is my great pleasure to have been asked to officially open this Workshop on Curriculum Development for Early Childhood Education.

First I would like to thank the German Foundation for International Development, the African Curriculum Organisation and the Kenya Institute of Education for having organised this Workshop.

I understand that this is the third Workshop in the series of intensive Workshops that the African Curriculum Organisation has organised since its inception in September 1976; and that the organisation has always been interested in stimulating and strengthening work in curriculum development and in promoting effective cooperation among curriculum centres in Africa and other organisations concerned with the development of education.

This is evidenced by the gathering here this afternoon.

It was only two months ago that my Vice-Chancellor was in this very Institute to open yet another Writing Workshop in preparation for the ACO Basic Training Course for Curriculum Development. I am pleased to announce that the University of Nairobi has already accepted the proposed course and we are looking forward to working with all the implementing agencies.

This workshop has been made possible by assistance from the German Foundation for International Development who have shown keen interest in this field of Education in Africa.

I notice that the theme of this year's workshop is "Curriculum for Early Childhood Education." I am particularly heartened to notice that the sponsoring organisation shares similar sentiments to those of the Kenya Government. This represents a further step in our efforts to focus on the child during the most impressionable years. This is indeed an opportune tribute to 1979 the International Year of the Child.

During the year 1979 the Kenya Government will pay special attention to programmes and services rendered to children, especially the disadvantaged. Research will be carried out on the needs of these children so as to improve the services provided to them. Existing legislation will be reviewed and new legislation introduced where necessary. Our beloved President His Excellency Hon. Daniel Arap Moi has given the nation practical examples by declaring that this year education shall be free from standard one to standard six and to standard seven by 1980. He also abolished building and other school funds formally charged to parents but adversely affecting children so that many more children can enrol and benefit from primary school education. The President also advocates that we should improve the children's mental and physical welfare by providing a balanced diet. To this end, he declared that milk should be provided free and regularly to all primary school children in the Republic.

Since independence fifteen years ago, the Government has placed a high priority on the development of Education. Since then the Ministry of Education has made tremendous strides in the field of Early Childhood Education. Although universal primary education has not yet been achieved, the enrolment of school age children has risen from 50 per cent at independence to over 85 per cent in 1978. The Ministry is strongly committed to improving the quality, relevance, and to ensuring equitable distribution of educational opportunities. It is our hope, that this will improve the lives of our children by enhancing their income - earning opportunities and promoting more creative lifestyles. This would, among other things, lead to the alleviation of poverty among our people. To enhance the quality of education, the Government plans to provide qualified teachers whose role should be more of adaptable educators rather than mere instructors. The Kenya Institute of Education has been charged with the task of providing more relevant instructional materials and bringing about changes in the curriculum especially in the strengthening of sciences, mathematics and pre-vocational subjects.

So far, financial constraints have limited the Government involvement in pre-school education. Pre-School Education facilities in Kenya have up to now been managed by a variety of institutions including local communities, local authorities, private organisations and individuals. For some time to come these institutions will continue to play a major role in the development of pre-school education. But to the extent that resources will permit, the Government, through the Ministry of Housing and Social Services and the Ministry of Education will intensify its efforts to improve the quality of pre-school education. This will be achieved through expansion of training facilities for pre-school teachers, improving the quality of training programmes and developing the curriculum and relevant materials. In addition the Government intends to extend and co-ordinate the pre-school feeding programme.

I would like to turn my attention briefly to the field of special education. Any advanced education system must take care of those children who have been disadvantaged by various physical, psychological and mental handicaps. In the past, our Government's participation in this field of education has been confined to granting assistance to voluntary organisations that conduct programmes for the handicapped. The Government will now assume greater responsibility and will extend assistance in the fields of pre-school special education establishment of sheltered workshops and the provision of adequate equipment for the handicapped. A special Education Unit has been established in the Ministry of Education to coordinate all these activities.

I have gone into detail on some of the developments and problems in the development of early childhood education because of my belief that many of you here share my centiments about the importance of this stage of education. I do believe that many of the other African countries that this gathering represents are faced with similar objectives, challenges and problems. Developing countries like ours are faced with financial and employment constraints. These will for some time to come influence our objectives and strategies for the development of early childhood education. Gradually we will have to shift our emphasis from quantitative to qualitative improvement in an endeavour to diversify and make this level of education more functional and relevant. There will be constant need to review the curriculum to cope with changing needs and manpower requirements. Through education we shall also need to make attempts to help children develop with and adapt to changing social patterns that come with modernisation. In this respect it will be necessary to encourage greater participation of the parents and the community in the development and management of the formal education and to make our efforts in this educational development a joint enterprise of home, school and community.

I understand this workshop will address itself to some of these problems and I hope the outcomes of the three weeks efforts will have some impact on early childhood education and on preparing our children for adult life and for the world of work.

I wish to take this opportunity to commend the African Curriculum Organisation once again in its efforts to develop manpower for the African Curriculum Centres.

I would like to extend my gratitude to the German Foundation for International Development for the financial and professional assistance in this undertaking. Thanks also to the organisers of this workshop for inviting me to be the Guest of Honour and I now have the pleasure of declaring this workshop officially open.

Thank you.

A SPEECH DELIVERED BY HIS EXCELLENCY DR. A. KUCHN THE AMBASSADOR OF THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY TO KENYA ON THE OPENING OF THE ACO'S THIRD ANNUAL WORKSHOP ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT THE KENYA INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION ON 16TH JULY, 1979.

I am happy to welcome the participants and consultants of the third intensive workshop on curriculum development which has just been declared opened by Prof. D. Odhiambo the Deputy Vice-Chancellor of the University of Nairobi

Eighteen English speaking African countries are represented here today and this emphasizes indeed the scope and the importance of this workshop, organized by the African Curriculum Organization (ACO), hosted by the Kenya Institute of Education and sponsored by the German Foundation for International Development. It is thus a true "joint venture" and something like a symbol for the wish and need for cooperation and exchange of views in the field of education, a field which is as important as it is complicated and it certainly poses problems to African and Non-African countries alike, since the challenge of education in a changing world is felt and realized just as much by the industrialised nations. Theirs might be different problems in detail, stemming from a different environment and a different level of industrialisation and technical progress but the basic question remains the same: How best can we prepare the future generation for modern life and its ever increasing complexities and difficulties?

This vital issue will be discussed during the conference and hopefully answers will be found, conclusions drawn and improvements be recommended. A look at your programme assures me that the workshop will not limit itself, however, to these general theoretical questions, important as they may be as a basis for reform, but will also consider methods and devise programmes to implement whichever findings will result from its work.

I very much appreciate this approach and wish you all the best for your efforts during this workshop here in Kenya and your work hereafter in your home countries.

EVALUATION OF THIRD ACO INTENSIVE WORKSHOP ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION HELD AT KENYA INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION.

15 JULY - 3 AUGUST 1979

Two questionnaires were constructed to evaluate the achievements of working groups and the workshop as a whole. Over 85% of the participants handed in their questionnaires for analysis. The workshop was attended by people drawn from curriculum development centres, lecturers and administrators in Ministries of Education. Most of the participants have had experience of between 2 and 10 years. The curriculum centres and organisations were involved in the preparation for the workshop in different ways ranging from the hosting of the workshop to providing information on the situation of early childhood education. The majority of the participants had prior discussion before they attended the workshop.

In the overall analysis, the participants expressed their appreciation to the organisers and sponsors for arranging such an important workshop on early childhood education. The most enjoyable and useful aspects were the working groups followed by the discussions. 60% of the participants felt that the objectives of the workshop were clearly stated. In terms of presentations, discussions and group work the period of three weeks was found to be appropriate by the majority of the participants. The venue of the workshop was appropriate.

The new skills acquired from the workshop varied from one group to another. Some participants gained skills in curricula design on an integrated approach while others gained skills in toy making using local materials. Knowledge was increased on planning of special education for the handicapped and the pre-school; developmental tasks of the African child, the socio-cultural environment and the African economic and political realities. On the whole the lectures, discussions and resource materials during the plenary sessions were rated high.

The physical facilities were generally rated high by the participants. Boarding and lodging could have been improved if the hotel provided facilities for radios and TV and if sufficient funds were provided to enable participants have decent meals. Feeding and recreation was rated very low.

Most groups expressed the lack of sufficient clear guidelines to enable them achieve the overall objectives of the workshop. The time for practical sessions involving curriculum design, writing of related materials, trials and evaluation was considered too short. In some groups there was not much interaction with the consultants. There was enough reading materials for reference purposes.

General Comments and Recommendations

Having assessed the workshop as of paramount importance to African countries the participants made the following comments and recommendations:

1. There should be specific recommendations to African countries regarding the curriculum for pre-school and handicapped children education

2. The faculty members did a good job although some of the consultants did not meet the expectations of the participants. In future the organisers should take great care in selecting and briefing the consultants. All subject areas under-consideration should have a consultant, in some cases there were too many consultants in some groups while in some there was none.

3. Since the lecturers had written papers they should have given more time to discussions which were preferred by the participants. In future papers should be given to participants a day before delivery of the lecture. The lecturer should highlight the main points and issues only and allow more time for discussions.

4. It appeared that most groups were working in isolation. In future the organisers should move from one group to another to ensure proper coordination and consistency.

5. To ensure smooth running of working groups clear guidelines should be prepared and given to the consultants well in advance.

6. There should be regular meetings of the faculty and more plenary sessions thus bringing together the groups whenever major discrepancies arise.

7. The participants felt that there should be a follow-up to relate the lectures and the group activities.

8. If total integration is to be realised in early childhood education there is a need to include all other subject areas instead of social studies, science and mathematics only. A special course ought to be organised on processes of integration.

APPENDIX I

ACO Third Annual Workshop on Curriculum Development for Early Childhood Education

Schedule

Week 1.

Monday	16th July, 1979
Time	9.00 - 11.00 a.m.
Topic	The Development Tasks of the African Child. Their Implications for Curriculum Development for Early Childhood Education.
Speaker	Dr. J. Igaga
Chairman	Mr. E.M. Mugiri
Time	11.30 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.
Topic	The Socio-Cultural Environment of the African Child: Implications for Curriculum Development for Early Childhood Education
Speaker	Dr. R. Nyonyintono
Chairman	Prof. Mbithi
Time	2.15 p.m.
	Opening Ceremony

Tuesday 17th July, 1979

Time:	9.00 - 11.00 a.m.
Topic:	African Economic and Political Realities Their implications for Curriculum Development for early Childhood Education.
Speaker:	Dr. A.N. Boma
Chairman:	Dr. G.P. Oluoch

Time: 11.30 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.

Topic: Training the African Teacher for Early Childhood Education

Speakers: Mrs. S. Savage
Mrs. L. Kipkorir

Chairman: Mr. D. Mbiti

Time: 3.00 p.m. - 5.00 p.m.

Topic: African Traditional Forms of Early Childhood Education

Speaker: Mrs. S. Mweene

Chairman: Mr. P. Kiarie

Wednesday 18th July, 1979

Time: 9.00 - 11.00 a.m.

Topic: The Status of Early Childhood Education in Kenya

Speaker: Mr. O.N. Gakuru

Chairperson: L. Kipkorir

Time: 11.30 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.

Topic: The Status of Early Childhood Education Liberia

Speaker: Mrs. R.B. Karnley

Chairman: Chief Mengot

Afternoon Free

Thursday 19th July, 1979

Time: 9.00 a.m. - 11.00 a.m.

Topic: The Status of Early Childhood Education in Ghana

Speaker: A. Menka

Chairman: Chief Mengot

Time: 11.30 a.m. - 1.30 a.m.

Topic: The Status of Early Childhood Education in Zambia

Speaker: K.A. Chali

Chairman: Chief Mengot

Time: 3.00 - 5.00 p.m.

Topic: The Status of Early Childhood Education in Industrialized Societies

Speaker: J. Greenland

Chairman: L. Mwaura

Friday 20th July, 1979

Time: 8.00 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.

VISITS TO PRIMARY AND PRE-SCHOOL

Afternoon: Film Show

Week II

Monday 23rd July, 1979

Time: 9.00 - 11.00 a.m. and 11.30 a.m. - 1.30 p.m.

Topic: Evaluation in Early Childhood Learning and Teaching

Speaker: Prof. E.A. Yoloye

Chairman: Mr. E.M. Mugiri

From Monday 23rd July, 1979, at 3.00 p.m. to Thursday 2nd August, 1979, all the sessions will be practical. The practical sessions will be in the following groups:-

(i) Developing language skills in Early Childhood

(ii) Developing Science behaviour, Computation and Manipulative skills in Early Childhood

(iii) Using Local Resources and materials for Educational Toys in African Countries

(iv) Catering for children with special Learning Needs.

APPENDIX II

CONSULTANTS/RESOURCE PERSONNEL

Dr. A.N. Boma	Director I.P.A.R. Buea P.O. Box 8, Buea/Cameroon.
Mrs. S. Mweene	c/o Mr. K.A. Chali Curriculum Development Centre Box RW 92 Lusaka/Zambia.
Mr. A.F. Menka	Ghana Education Service Curriculum Division P.O. Box 2739 Accra/Ghana
Prof. E.A. Yoloye	Director Institute of Education University of Ibadan Ibadan/Nigeria
Mrs. O.M. Onibokun	University of Ibadan Ibadan/Nigeria
Dr. C. Dalais	Joint Child Health and Education Project 75 Caliçourt Anteime Avenue Quatre Bornes Mauritius
Mrs. Sylvia Savage	c/o Institute of Education University of Sierra Leone Freetown/Sierra Leone
Mrs. J. Greaves-Badio	Director Curriculum Planning and Development Department Ministry of Education Monrovia/Liberia
Mr. K.A. Chali	Curriculum Development Centre Ministry of Education P.O. Box RW 92 Lusaka/Zambia
Mrs. K.U. Igbokwe	Nigerian Educational Research Council P.O. Box 8058 Lagos/Nigeria
Mr. Jeremy Greenland	UNESCO-Institute fur Padagogiki Feldbrunnenstr. 58 2000 Hamburg 13
Frau Brunhilde Marquardt	Institute fur die Padagogiki der Naturwissenschaften Olshausenstr. 40-60 2300 KIEL 1

Udo Bude	German Foundation for International Development Simrockstr. 1 5300 BONN 1
Mrs. Beatrice Jones	I.P.A.R. Buea P.O. Box 8 Buea/Cameroon
Dr. P.A.I. Obanya	Executive Secretary African Curriculum Organization c/o Institute of Education University of Ibadan Ibadan/Nigeria
Annette Neu	German Foundation for International Development Simrockstr. 1 2300 Bonn 1
Dr. J. Igaga	Kenyatta University College P.O. Box 43844 NAIROBI
Mr. O.N. Gakuru	University of Nairobi P.O. Box 30197 NAIROBI
Mrs. L.I. Kipkorir	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Miss E. Gatua	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Mrs. M. Kabiru	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Mrs. H. Mburu	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Mr. S. Shankardass	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Mr. E. Makumi	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI
Chief Mengot	UNESCO Regional Office Dakar.

APPENDIX III

Participants

Botswana

I. Rampou	Ministry of Education Dept. of Curriculum and Evaluation c/o Box 189 Gaborore/Botswana

Burundi:

Mrs. M. Bwimana	Bureau d'Education Rurale B.P. 2260 Bujumbura/Burundi
E. Rugemarina	Ministry of Education B.P. 1990 Bujumbura/Burundi

Ethiopia

Ato Gulilat Abera	Curriculum Department Ministry of Education Addis Ababa/Ethiopia
Ato Terfasa Digga	Curriculum Department Ministry of Education Addis Ababa/Ethiopia

Gambia

Mrs. Pet Metuge	Curriculum Development Centre 10 Cameroon Street Banjul/The Gambia
Mr. Sidia Jatta	Curriculum Development Centre 10 Cameroon Street Banjul/The Gambia

Lesotho

Mr. E.M. Moima	Mathematics Division Department of Curriculum Ministry of Education P.O. Box 47 Maseru, 100/Lesotho
Mr. P.M. Kaphe	English Division Department of Curriculum Ministry of Education P.O. Box 47 Maseru. 100/Lesotho.

Liberia

Mrs. Rosina B. Karnley	Pre-Primary Curriculum Coordinator Ministry of Education Monrovia/Liberia
Mrs. Florence C. Brooks	Principal, Augustus F. Gaine Pre-Primary School Ministry of Education Monrovia/Liberia

Mauritius

Mr. Dhanessur Sundar Nagawa	Mauritius Institute of Education Reduit/Mauritius
Mrs. Sheel Thancanamootoo	Mauritius Institute of Education Reduit/Mauritius
Mr. A. Wanchow Wah	Mauritius Institute of Education Reduit/Mauritius

Nigeria

Mr. E.O. Jekami	Nigeria Education Research Council 17, James Roberson Street P.O. Box 8058 Lagos/Nigera
Mrs. T. Oshungbohun	Nigeria Education Research Council 17, James Robertson Street Surulere, P.O. Box 8058 Lagos/Nigeria

Sierra Leone

Mrs. Hawa Sesay	c/o The National Curriculum Coordinator Institute of Education Private Mail Bag, Tower Hill Freetown/Sierra Leone
Mrs. Eva Johnson	c/o The National Curriculum Coordinator Institute of Education Private Mail Bag, Tower Hill Freetown/Sierra Leone

Swaziland

Mr. S.S. Mkhonta	Ministry of Education P.O. Box 39 Mbabane/Swaziland

Tanzania

Mrs. Beatrice Omari	Institute of Education S.L.P. 35094 Dar-es-Salaam/Tanzania
Mr. William T. Kwalazi	Institute of Education S.L.P. 35094 Dar-es-Salaam/Tanzania

Uganda

Mrs. E. Tuwange	Kabale T.T.C. P.O. Box 154 Kabale/Uganda
Mr. Titus R. Balemesa	Mathematics Education Specialist National Curriculum Development Centre P.O. Box 7002 Kampala/Uganda

Zambia

Mr. J. Michello	Curriculum Development Officer Ministry of Education P.O. Box RW 92 Lusaka/Zambia
Mr. G.S. Mwale	Curriculum Development Specialist Ministry of Education P.O. Box RW 92 Lusaka/Zambia.

Kenya

P. Kuria	Kenya Institute of Education P.O. Box 30231 NAIROBI.
P. Makumba	"
J. Kamenyi	"
L. Wandera (Mrs.)	"
J. Mucoki (Mrs.)	"
E. Adagala (Miss)	"
M. Ngechu (Miss)	"
G. Owino	"
M. Ojuando (Mrs.)	"
A. Mto-Mugambi	"
D. Kamau	"
P. Kamau	"

Kenya

M. Kimani (Mrs.)	Public Health Department Nairobi City Council P.O. Box 30108 NAIROBI/Kenya.
S. Ngunze (Mrs.)	City Education Department P.O. Box 30298 NAIROBI/Kenya.

Kenyan Observers

Mrs. M. Waichungo	City Education Department P.O. Box 30298 NAIROBI/Kenya.
Mrs. M. Chiuri	UNICEF Regional Office P.O. Box 44145 NAIROBI/Kenya.

APPENDIX IV

Evaluation Questionnaire for the Third ACO Intensive Workshop on Curriculum Development for Early Childhood Education

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information from participants concerning their perception of the workshop and identify areas that need improvement in future workshops. Your co-operation and honesty in answering the questions will be highly appreciated. Please feel free to make comments and suggestions giving specific examples wherever possible.

A General Information

1. Name (optional) _____
   Country _____
   Designation _____

2. For how long have you been in your present employment? _____ Year(s)

3. Has your Institute/Organisation been involved in the preparation for this workshop?
   Yes _____ No _____
   In what way _____
   _____
   _____

4. Did you discuss your participation in the workshop with your colleagues?
   Yes _____ No _____

5. What was the most useful aspect of the workshop?
   Lectures _____ Discussions _____
   Working Group _____

6. Which did you enjoy most in the workshop?
   Lectures _____ Discussions _____
   Working Group _____

7. Were the objectives of the workshop clearly stated?
   Yes _____ No _____

8. In terms of presentations, discussions and group work the period of three weeks was: Too short _____ Appropriate _____ Too long _____

9. Was the venue of the workshop appropriate?
Yes _____ No _____

10. What new skills have you acquired from the workshop?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. In which field did you increase your knowledge?

_____

_____

_____

_____

B. *Evaluation of Lectures in Plenary Sessions*

12. From your view as a participant in the workshop, please rate the lectures as regards to presentation, discussions and resource/reference materials using the Likert 5-point Scale: 5 = Excellent, 4 = Good, 3 = Average, 2 = Poor, 1 = Very Poor. Put a tick ( ) in the appropriate space.

	Presentations					Discussions					Resource/ Reference Materials				
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
0.1 Developmental Tasks of the African Child their implications for Curriculum Development for early Childhood Education															
0.2 The socio-cultural environment of the African child															
0.3 Africa economic and political realities															
0.4 Training the African teacher for early childhood education															
0.5 African Traditional forms of early child-hood education															
0.6 The status of early childhood education in Kenya.															

	Presentations					Discussions					Resource/Reference Materials				
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
0.7 The status of early Childhood Education in Liberia															
0.8 The status of early Childhood Education in Zambia															
0.9 The status of early childhood education in Ghana															
0.10 The status of early childhood education in Senegal															
0.11 The status of early childhood in industrialized societies															
0.12 Evaluation in early childhood Learning and Teaching															

	Were there clear guidelines for the group			Did you have sufficient time for discussions?			Did you interact sufficiently with consultants?			Were there adequate books?		
	Yes	Somehow	No	Yes	Somehow	No	Yes	Somehow	No	Yes	Somehow	No
Group I: Language												
Group II: Science/ Maths/Social Studies												
Group III: Appropriate Toys and Games												
Group IV: Special Learning Needs												

D. *Physical Facilities:*

14. Please rate the following using a 5 - point scale by ticking in the appropriate space.

5 = Excellent, 4 = Good, 3 = Average, 2 = Poor
1 = Very Poor

	5	4	3	2	1
Board and Lodging					
Feeding					
Tea/Coffee					
Transport					
Lecture Room					
Exhibition					
Recreation					
Group work facility					
Private Study					
Excursions					

E. *Time and Duration of Activities*

15. Please assess the timing of various activities by putting a tick in appropriate space.

	Not enough	Just right	Bearable	Too Much
Time given to lectures and information inputs				
Time given to plenary discussions				
Time given to working groups				
Time given to informal meetings				

F. *General Comments*

16. In the space provided below please give any comments and suggestions on the workshop.

APPENDIX V

Group Work Evaluation Questionnaire for the Workshop on Early Childhood Education

Group _____ Sub-Group _____

In this questionnaire you are requested to give your impressions on the workshop. This is of special significance to enable the organisers identify shortcomings in the workshop so that they may not be repeated in future. By filling in this questionnaire you are requested to assess the organisation, objectives, the content, methods of presentation and the evaluation of the workshop as a whole.

Organisation:

In your opinion, how do you assess the organisational set up of the Workshop?

	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor
Facilities					
Secretariat at K.I.E.					
Consultancy					
Group discussions					
Practical work					

Practical Sessions

State the objectives in your group _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Were these clear guidelines for your group discussion?

Yes _____ No _____

Did you have sufficient consultation?

Yes _____ No _____

Did you have enough opportunity to participate actively in the group discussions?

Yes _____ No _____

Which of the objectives stated above were realised during the practical sessions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Were the ideas of curriculum design clearly elaborated?

Yes _____ No _____

Were you able to draw appropriate lessons from the lectures designed to cater for the needs of the early childhood education?

Yes _____ No _____

What problems related to transition, language and integrated approach did you identify in your group?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

How did you solve the problems identified in above?

What was the most interesting thing in your group discussion?

What new ideas did you achieve in the group?

From your overall view of the workshop please rate the following aspects:-

	Very high	High	Fair	Very low
Comprehensive perception early child-hood education				
Refreshing knowledge				
Exchange of Experiences				
Learning of applied techniques				

Please indicate the degree of relevance of the subject matter to your job

Very relevant

relevant

hardly relevant

not at all

On the whole was it worthwhile your attending the workshop?

Yes _____ Somehow _____ No _____

Any further comments and suggestions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____